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ABSTRACT

The questions surrounding "citizen" participation in governance are important in American society generally, and some of these questions are raised in this analysis of the performance of broadly-based campus senates. Of 688 institutions identified in a national survey as having campus senates, 364 responded to a more detailed questionnaire dealing with such questions as constituencies represented on the senate, how they were chosen, and what the senate's areas of responsibility were. Data from 310 of these institutions along with information provided by participant observers at 15 institutions and by the Institutional Functioning Inventory, were used to study the number, functions, and consequences of broadly-based campus senates. The findings of this study are discussed with regard to shared decision-making, the importance of the advisory role, the mission of the institution and its size, senate size, special interest groups, and the impact of collective bargaining. (LBH)

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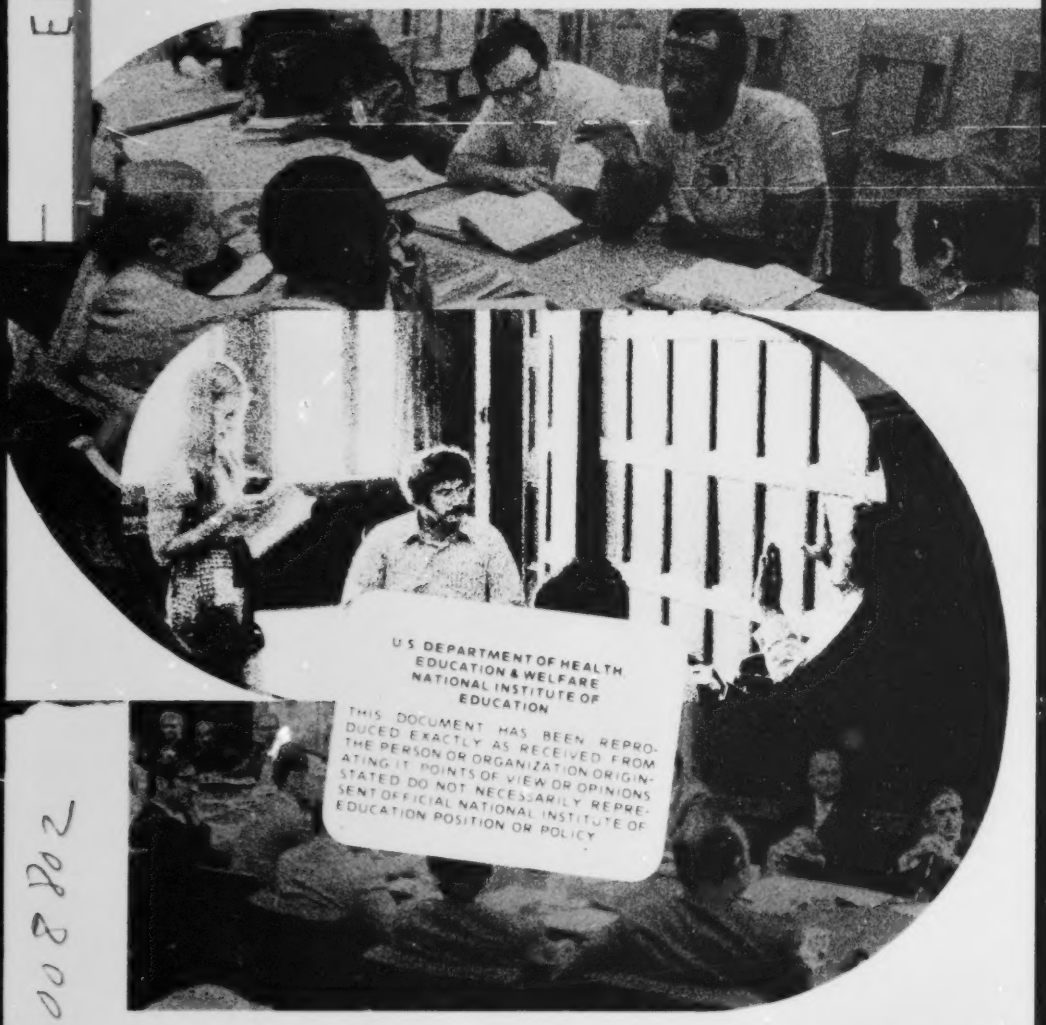
HAROLD L. HODGKINSON

The Campus Senate:
EXPERIMENT IN DEMOCRACY



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Best regards –

Burd

The Campus Senate:

EXPERIMENT IN DEMOCRACY

HAROLD L. HODGKINSON

Does not the worst evil for a state arise from anything that tends to rend it asunder and destroy its unity, while nothing does it more good than whatever tends to bind it together and make it one?

Plato, *The Republic*

CENTER FOR RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT IN HIGHER EDUCATION,
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Preface

This report is one in a series of research reports produced by the Berkeley Center for Research and Development in Higher Education. The research for this project was completed with financial support from the U.S. Office of Education and the National Institute of Education.

The questions surrounding "citizen" participation in governance are important in American life generally, and we have tried to raise some of these questions in our analysis of the performance of broadly based campus senates. Although the implications for other social institutions are not spelled out, we think that the report should be helpful to those who are concerned about participation in a variety of contexts. Our first responsibility, however, is to the individuals and institutions that are either operating or considering unicameral campus senates as a legislative governing body.

Many people have helped in the preparation of this report. Several Center staff members made helpful suggestions on the manuscript, particularly Tony Morgan, Hannah Kreplin, and Frank Bowen. Conversations with members of the Carnegie Commission and the Newman Task Force staffs were very helpful. Stewart Edelstein worked long and faithfully on the questionnaire analysis and was of great assistance in the training

of participant observers from the case study campuses. We owe particular debt to the campus participant observers, whose notes and impressions formed the basis for the case studies. Also, Nancy Beck of the ETS staff in Princeton was extremely helpful in expediting the IFI administrations on the case study campuses. Stephen Brint worked up the case materials from the participant observer data. Morris Kleinschmidt typed and edited the manuscript. Assistance on the design and strategy of the research came from many members of the Center staff, particularly from Lyman Glenny and Lee Medsker.

It is a pleasure for the author to acknowledge this assistance, and to state that he is responsible for any errors of fact or interpretation.

Harold L. Hodgkinson
Berkeley, California
October, 1973

Some Brief Advice for New Members of Campus Senates or Councils

1. Beware the "Great Expectations Syndrome." Your senate will probably not transform the campus overnight. Improved communication across different campus groups is a perfectly legitimate goal for a campus senate or council. You may also discover that influence is just as important as power.

2. Try to get some clarification, preferably in writing, with the institution's president early (before an issue creates a crisis) on questions of jurisdiction of senate activities, whether or not its role is primarily that of giving advice to officials who will then decide, or whether the senate usually decides and the administrator then implements. (Most administrators know that in the process of implementation you can usually shape a decision made by someone else so that it comes out the way you want.)

3. Try to avoid bloc voting (it rarely happens, anyway). This means that some of your strongest allies in the senate may be from another constituency--some faculty may find themselves voting consistently with some administration members, while others will usually vote with some students.

4. Avoid at all costs discussion of trivia just so that you can have something that you decided, in order to improve senate morale and prestige. Taking ten hours to decide the color of the homecoming queen's corsage may make you feel good for having decided <u>something</u> , but in the long run it's not very productive.

5. Be aware that the trustees may look suspiciously on your senate as a body which could potentially reduce the autonomy and initiative of <u>their</u> president. This may not be fair, but it's often the way they see it.

6. Senates seldom play a central role in decisionmaking. (Only 56 of 307 of our senates reported that they did play a central role.) Begin by working yourselves up the <u>competence</u> ladder, and see if you don't get more respect and action when people know you have done your homework.

7. Set up a training program for new members of the senate, explaining what you do and how.

8. The processes senates use can be very long and very frustrating. Be prepared for it. If the frustration level continues and is broadly shared, try to change your modus operandi.

9. Senate service is serious business. If you're a student, you should be getting course credit for it. If a faculty member, load credit should be provided. This assumes you're doing 8-10 hours a week of senate work.

10. Have regularly scheduled meetings so that people can get used to you, and may get into the habit of attending some of your meetings. In addition, schedule open hearings of issues of broad interest so that everyone can get into the deliberations. This device often has a very helpful effect. Part of your role may be to educate the rest of the campus as to the nature of the issues.

11. If you don't know how to read a budget, you'd better learn how! The budget is the most important policy document of any institution, and if you're going to attempt to influence institutional policy, knowing how to read this document is absolutely essential. Part of your training session for new members should include a mini-course in basic institutional finance.

12. Try to have some idea of what you would like the institution to become. If you do, this will help to prevent decisions from being just piecemeal.

13. Every senate member should contribute to the communication of good, accurate information across constituencies.

14. Your senate should possess an information file with course and faculty load statistics, budget data, student profiles, and other information about the campus.

CHAPTER 1
Introduction

During the middle and late sixties, most observers of higher education were preoccupied with student demonstrations and the remarkable tensions they represented. Few noticed two very important shifts in campus decision-making: (1) students began to be included on faculty senates and other campus-wide decision-making bodies, as well as on boards of trustees, and (2) more and more decision-making power was taken over by statewide coordinating agencies and influenced by legislative politics.

By 1973 it was clear that the major movement in "participatory" or shared decision-making has been increased use of students in the process. McGrath, in "Should Students Share the Power?" (1970) reported major increases in student participation on trustee boards and in other important campus-wide governance bodies. Students have, indeed, come out of the "sandbox" of "student government," as that term has been known.

By 1970, we at the Center had become aware of the increase in legislative structures on campus that drew representatives from at least three

major constituencies--faculty, students, and administrators. These broadly representative councils or senates (often with alumni and trustee representation as well) seemed to be springing up everywhere. They appeared to be an alternative to the sort of factionist pattern so commonly observed by Morris Keeton and his colleagues in their earlier report on governance, Shared Authority.

By 1971, the Center decided that the campus senate movement had grown large enough to merit study, and the project of which this paper is the final report was authorized. As we considered the problem, it became clear that there was no existing knowledge base concerning the campus senates that we could tap. This suggested some kind of national survey of all institutions of higher education, a task we were reluctant to undertake. A large number of such questionnaires are sent each year to institutions, which consider them an inconvenience. It seemed silly to bother all institutions of higher education when we only wanted data from a few--those with broadly based campus senates.

We soon discovered that three other Center projects were in exactly the same boat, needing basic data from institutions before asking more specific questions. Our mutual needs were satisfied through the development of a single, four-page questionnaire, answerable in five minutes. In our case, we found out which campuses were currently using a campus senate, which ones had tried the idea but dropped it, which were still considering the idea, and other basic information. From the responses we were able to develop a more detailed questionnaire which was sent only to the institutions having campus senates.

Letters we wrote to campuses that had expressed interest in campus senates, but did not currently possess them, provided an additional source of useful data. Although responses tended to be written by administrators, and therefore should not be taken to represent all points of view, they did provide a rich source of information on why various institutions had rejected the campus senate model, why others were considering the adoption of such a structure, and what their hopes and worries were.

Of the 688 institutions identified in the national survey as having campus senates, 564 responded to our more detailed questionnaire dealing with such questions as constituencies represented on the senate, how they were chosen, and what the senate's areas of responsibility were. Three hundred and ten of these were usable.

We felt, however, that this data base could not really give us a feel for some of the finer points of analysis, such as the processes of campus senate operation and differences in participation styles among senates. Consequently, in fall 1972, we asked 15 institutions to participate in the study by allowing us to train several of their campus senate members in techniques of participant observation. Each institution sent three representatives to the training session--a student, faculty, and administrative member of their campus senate. In addition to the reports sent in by the participant observers during 1972-73, we were also sent copies of the school paper, constitution, minutes of senate meetings, faculty handbooks, and other documents.

Although we originally planned to make several site visits to each participating campus during the 1972-73 year, limited funding made this impossible. We also hoped to be able to get the participant observers together at the end of the year (May, 1973) to compare notes on what the year had brought forth, but that also proved to be too expensive. However, we were able to secure normative data on our case study institutions in terms of the campus cultures in which the senates were operating. The Institutional Functioning Inventory, produced by the Educational Testing Service, seemed the most useful index for this purpose, and we arranged for its distribution on the case study campuses. The various scales for the instrument can also be found in Chapter 6.

These, then, were the various data sources we used in studying the number, functions, and consequences of broadly based campus senates. But what was our stance as we began to review and interpret this data? How did we approach the problem? Clearly, we tried not to be partisans for the new approach, nor denigrators of it. We did feel, however, that the campus senate perhaps represented the last major chance at participatory democracy for many campuses, given the trends toward more factionalism and adversary bargaining in recent years, as well as the fact that many kinds of decision-making have moved off campus. The campus senate operates on the apparent assumption that faculty, students, and administrators can best make decisions in a communitarian environment with each group represented, rather than in a "separation of powers" situation in which each group meets without the other two. One naturally thinks back

to the tradition of the New England town meeting, to public schools run by locally elected town boards, and to other devices typical of rural, small town America.

But one characteristic of these earlier attempts at community government was that the groups represented were very homogeneous. The New England town meeting did not contain the full length and breadth of human types--indeed, it was a highly conformist culture. Campuses today contain a greater diversity of people by age, race, social class, geographical background, vocation, and other characteristics than could be said of almost any of the institutions we cherish in the name of community government. It is this diversity of background and outlook within and across faculty, student, and administrative groups that makes consensus improbable and strict "representation" (one person truly speaking as his constituents would themselves speak) unlikely. Thus, we tended to see the broadly representative campus senate model as somewhat utopian and romantic, given the hard-nosed styles of adversary bargaining widely used in higher education today.

On the other hand, we have seen from some years of campus observation that there is presently a great need for a vehicle to promote information and communication across the various groups on today's campus. Even if no decisions were made by these unicameral senates, if they increased communication and understanding across factions, that would be a very important function.

There is also the question of competency in campus-wide decision-making. Do faculty and students have a wide enough perspective to actually engage in policy-making for an institution? Many writers in the area of organizational theory and development in the industrial realm, such as Chris Argyris, Rensis Likert, and Warren Bennis, seem to advocate the broad participation of workers in decisions that affect them at their own level--deciding with other members of an assembly line team how the work will be parcelled out, for example. But few writers have dealt with the question of the involvement of the worker in policy decisions made by corporate boards of directors in industry. The analogy to industrial organization is not terribly useful in all respects, particularly in questions of the determination of corporate policy. (Indeed, the determination of a working definition for the word "policy" turns out to be one of the more ticklish problems in the English language.) Who, then, is competent to decide how large a college or university should become, and what its objectives should be? And how do we find people who possess these competencies? Certainly there are some basic facts about budgeting that everyone should know before trying to understand a college or university budget. We wondered about the competence of campus senates in many areas of institutional decision-making. But then we wondered about the conventional wisdom of assuming that members of a board of trustees, mostly bankers, lawyers, and professional men, have some corner on the talents needed for establishing institutional policy.

We wondered about the communitarian question also--should representatives on campus senates try to decide matters from a campus-wide perspectiv? Or should the representative always vote as his or her constituents would want? If senates were always engaged in bloc voting, and decisions were always made in accordance with the number present from each constituency, the institution-wide perspective might be lost on certain crucial issues.

As with all such studies, we have not answered all the questions. But we have learned many things about the number of senates, their composition, their activities and accomplishments. We hope that our recommendations will be useful, particularly to those new members of campus senates and members of new campus senates. We also hope the research style of this project, with its use of a variety of strategies and techniques, will be of interest to others who study the structures and processes of campus governance.

CHAPTER 2

Basic Descriptive Data

We received replies from 1,863 institutions to our original questtionnaire. Six hundred and eighty-eight of our 1,863 indicated that they currently had a broadly based senate (see Hodgkinson, 1973).

CURRENT STATUS OF CAMPUS SENATE
(n = 1863)

1.	Currently have a broadly based campus senate.	688 institutions
2.	Had such a body, but discontinued it.	40 "
3.	Currently considering the idea.	303 "
4.	Will start one in the near future	52 "
5.	Have never considered the idea.	545 "
6.	Other.	55 "

The communitarian ideology would suggest that most broadly based senates and councils would be found at small private colleges. We also assumed that two-year community colleges, because of their essentially commuter nature and transient student body, would have almost no examples of broadly based councils or senates. It seemed logical also to assume

that large institutions would have few campus senates, as most decision-making would be done by subunits within the campus. We also felt that institutions with innovative calendars, such as the 4-1-4, would be highly receptive to innovative governance models like the broadly based campus senate.

We will need some new stereotypes. Here is how the 688 institutions having senates look by highest degree, compared to our original sample of 1863:

CAMPUSES WITH SENATES (n = 688)
COMPARED WITH FULL SAMPLE (n = 1863),
BY HIGHEST DEGREE

	(n = 688)	(n = 1863)
1. Certificate	1 (.1%)	13 (.7%)
2. AA	226 (32.8%)	645 (34.6%)
3. BA/BS	158 (23.0%)	525 (28.1%)
4. MA/MS	142 (20.6%)	339 (18.2%)
5. Professional	41 (6.0%)	103 (5.5%)
6. Ph.D.	120 (17.4%)	238 (12.8%)

A large number of community colleges apparently do find the campus council or senate format useful to them. Indeed, they are somewhat over-represented in the group having senates, compared to their proportion in the 1863 returns from institutions in the national survey. No level of highest degree awarded apparently has any claim to being the major or sole

area in which these bodies are found; they are spread throughout the spectrum of institutions by highest degree.

We also assumed that the smaller the institution, the greater the likelihood that they would have a campus senate. That assumption, too, turned out to be illusory:

CAMPUSES WITH SENATES (n = 688)
COMPARED WITH FULL SAMPLE (n = 1863),
BY SIZE OF STUDENT BODY

Student Population	*(n = 688)*	*(n = 1863)*
1 - 1000	235 (34.2%)	748 (40.1%)
1001 - 2000	118 (17.2%)	399 (21.4%)
2001 - 5000	140 (20.3%)	324 (17.4%)
5001 - 7000	58 (8.4%)	117 (6.3%)
7001 - 10,000	46 (6.7%)	82 (4.4%)
10,001 - 15,000	46 (6.7%)	95 (5.1%)
15,001 - 20,000	22 (3.2%)	44 (2.4%)
20,001 - 30,000	13 (1.9%)	33 (1.8%)
30,001 - 40,000	7 (1.0%)	13 (.7%)
40,000 +	3 (.4%)	7 (.4%)

It is true that most campus senates are found in smaller institutions, but most of the institutions reporting on the national survey were also in this size range. It appears that the appeal of the campus senate idea is uniformly spread out over the range of institutional size. We had expected a "critical mass"--an institutional size that was characteristic of most of the campus senates we located. This was not the case. Institutional size has been related to many aspects of campus functioning, from student protest to student learning, but size is not related to the existence of a campus senate. (Size does relate to certain senate characteristics, however, as we will see later.)

Our hypothesis about the relationship of campus senates to the more innovative calendar structures, such as the 4-1-4, also went by the boards:

CAMPUSES WITH SENATES (n = 688)
COMPARED WITH FULL SAMPLE (n = 1863),
BY CALENDAR

Calendar	(n = 688)	(n = 1863)
Semester	377 (54.8%)	1006 (54.0%)
Trimester	26 (3.8%)	68 (3.6%)
Quarter	169 (24.6%)	446 (24.0%)
4-1-4	71 (10.3%)	218 (11.7%)
Other	45 (6.5%)	124 (6.6%)

The distribution of institutions with campus senates by type of control again proved our stereotypes wrong. We had assumed that the private sector would be very heavy with campus senates, while the real numbers indicated almost a perfect proportionate spread by control:

CAMPUSES WITH SENATES (n = 688)
COMPARED WITH FULL SAMPLE (n = 1863),
BY TYPE OF CONTROL

Type of Control	(n = 688)	(n = 1863)
Public	377 (54.8%)	950 (50.9%)
Sectarian	171 (24.9%)	514 (27.6%)
Nonsectarian	139 (20.2%)	391 (20.9%)
Proprietary	1 (.1%)	8 (.4%)

At the moment, then, there seems to be no reason to assume that campus senates "belong" to campuses of any particular size range, pattern of control, highest degree awarded, or calendar. Apparently, the idea of a campus senate appealed almost equally to all segments of American higher education, at least in terms of the traditional ways of classifying those institutions.

CHAPTER 3

The Origins, Structure, and Functioning of 310 Representative Campus Senates, Based on Questionnaire Data

METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

A consistent methodological goal in the organization of the following data is the attempt to organize by issues. Three hundred and sixty-four institutions responded to the longer questionnaire, of which 54 were eliminated for a variety of reasons (principally because their senates were not a unicameral form). The questionnaire data from the 310 institutions might have been organized in a number of ways. A first attempt was made to divide the senates by functions they performed (legislative, advisory, judicial, etc.) and then to describe and analyze the data. This proved impossible since many of the senates could not be clearly or simply categorized along these lines. The data might also have been organized by types of institution, but the plan which was finally adopted organizes the data primarily by issues. This plan has the principal virtue of emphasizing the process and problems of the unicameral form.

Of course, the function of a senate remains as a major intervening variable, especially on the determination of the types of senate "virtues"

and "weaknesses." The effects a form will have should vary by a number of factors, including personal and historical factors which our structural variables penetrate only very superficially, if at all. As always, the reader should guard against allowing what are often merely statistical descriptions to suggest unreliable causal relations or to obscure more discrete causal phenomena.

The case studies are particularly useful for their emphasis of more discrete causes and effects. The case studies are similar to the rest of the data, however, in that they are also issue-oriented. The four institutions were chosen from our original 15 not because they were closely representative of all of the types of institutions and senates in the sample but because they clearly illustrated the types of problems and processes most frequently found in the senates.

Conclusions are sometimes limited in their formal or statistical reliability by the sometimes small numbers from which they are drawn. For example, the statistical or formal validity of the statement that "the senates experiencing institutional conflicts with administrative bodies tend to be large" may rest on an insufficient data base to warrant inferences, especially inferred prescriptions, which might be drawn. We have endeavored to present enough data in such cases so that the reader can judge. We have tried to avoid wording and phrasing that suggest more than the data can support, but we may not have always been as successful in this effort as we would have liked. We recall Campbell and Stanley's advocacy of "quasi-statistics" in certain cases.

Nevertheless, conclusions and analysis are commonly either based on large numbers or recurring smaller numbers. Moreover, it should be remembered that both David Riesman's The Lonely Crowd and Kenneth Keniston's The Uncommitted were based on very small samples. We could have eliminated our qualitative data but, like them, we have not eliminated what we considered legitimte insights and relations for lack of numerical corroboration.

A few final notes are in order concerning the section analyzing the questionnaire's open-ended items. Methodologists have long been aware of what is called the "acquiesence response set," and there is some grounds for believing that this effect may have been enhanced here through respondent bias and a few poorly organized questions. Most of the respondents (well over two-thirds and quite possibly three-quarters of them) were administrators or quasi-administrators whose candor might conceivably be affected by a sensitivity to public relations, or who, in some cases, might evaluate the senates from a limited management perspective. With respect to the questionnaire wording, the "feeders" for the question on general positive or negative impacts suggested only positive responses, and a question on the future of the senates directly followed a question asking for the virtues of the senates.

In addition, the logic of category selection was sometimes very finely graded, and possibly some mistakes have been made because of this. Many of the categories used, especially the sub-categories, shade into one another, and several responses that were put in one category might as easily have been put in another by some other analyst.

In one case such a possibility was more than merely hypothetical. Throughout most of this part of the questionnaire analysis, our senate size categories were inadequately drawn and tended to confuse the true meaning of large and small senates. Accurate data on senate size could only be determined later in the analysis. Until the final figures came through, we were calling all senates of 25 or fewer members "small." However, by final sample standards many of these would be more accurately called "medium-sized." (See Table H.)

As we expected, different people filled out our questionnaire, based on their role. This related somewhat to the size of the institution, but included were 91 institutional presidents, 154 administrators (primarily academic deans), and 95 chairmen of the broadly representative campus councils, who may have been faculty or administrators or students. One interesting dimension of the authorship of the questionnaire response is that as the institutional size got larger, there was a greater tendency to have the questionnaire filled out by the chairman of the senate and a decreasing tendency to have it filled out by the institution's president. In addition, the two-year or community college institutions tended to have the questionnaire filled out by the president, with fewer from other administrators in the community colleges and fewer from the chairmen of the campus senates. Public institutions in our sample were rather strong on having our questionnaire filled out by the chairman of the representative council or senate. Private institutions were higher in having the questionnaire filled out by other administrators.

We found that about 260 of our institutions called their group a College or University Council or Senate. There were some interesting variations in terms of the name, including the Master Planning Council, College Management Council, the Shared Governance Assembly, and, in one institution, a presidential troika, in which three individuals made up collectively the presidency of the institution. The larger the organization, the more it tended to be called a senate. The smaller the body, the more it tended to be called a council. Two-year institutions had more campus councils than they had senates. Senates were more frequent in institutions that offer higher degrees. This leads to the hypothesis that bodies which are called "councils" may tend to serve a more advisory function, whereas bodies which are called "senates" may be more political and directly involved with legislative matters.

HISTORY OF THE REPRESENTATIVE COUNCIL OR SENATE

One of our early suppositions about the campus council was that it would not last for very long. The fact that all but eight of our second round of 310 institutions indicated that they still had a campus council or senate in operation provides evidence that the organizational form has some staying power.

We were surprised to find that many institutions had had their broadly based council or senate in operation for a longer time than we anticipated. Institutions seem fairly evenly split in terms of the time their council had been in operation, although councils over seven years of age were fairly rare (see Table A).

TABLE A

HOW LONG HAS YOUR PRESENT COUNCIL BEEN IN OPERATION?

22 - Less than 1 year
32 - 1 to 1 year, 11 months
71 - 2 to 2 years, 11 months
64 - 3 to 3 years, 11 months
45 - 4 to 4 years, 11 months
54 - 5 to 6 years, 11 months
35 - 7 to 14 years, 11 months
9 - 15 or more years
32 - No response (includes irrelevant responses)

Who Started It?

We were also interested in discovering who initiated the idea of the campus senate. Primarily the answer was administrators. Two hundred and sixty-five institutions reported this, with 213 indicating that faculty initiated the idea; 103 indicating that students had a role to play in the initiation; 33 saying trustees; eight saying alumni; and six saying the idea was initiated by state legislatures. (Institutions could have more than one source of initiation, and many did.) In two-year institutions, the initiation by administrators was even more common. Remember that most of our respondents were administrators, some

perhaps not excessively modest. Two-year institutions were, conversely, low in faculty-initiated campus senates and very low in student initiation. With the exception of the two-year colleges, student-initiated proposals seemed to be distributed equally among institutions by highest degree awarded from B.A. up to Ph.D.-granting institutions. However, student initiation tended to come from the private sector (both sectarian and non-sectarian) more than from the public sector. We thought that student initiation of the campus senate would be particularly strong in smaller institutions, but the number of student-initiated senate proposals was not related to institutional size.

It was interesting that in the more experimental calendar programs (trimester and 4-1-4 programs) there was a greater amount of student participation in the formation of the campus senate. There seemed to be few differences by size, highest degree, or type of control with respect to faculty and administration initiation.

What Started It?

We also asked our respondents to briefly describe the reasons or circumstances that led up to the consideration of the broadly based council. Again, we were surprised. We had assumed that campus unrest was the primary reason for the establishment of this body, but we learned from the data on the age of the senates that many of our institutions had campus senates before the student protest movement began (see Table B). Far and away, the most frequently given reason was the desire to democratize decision-making and broaden the input base for policy questions.

Other important reasons given were the need to improve communication across campus factions and the reforming spirit of a new administration. The reasons for considering the council idea did not seem to vary with institutional characteristics.

TABLE B

REASONS FOR CONSIDERING A CAMPUS COUNCIL

27 - Campus unrest; student dissatisfaction; student initiative.

13 - Employee (faculty, professional staff) unrest, dissatisfaction, initiative.

57 - Unworkable previous system; outdated, ineffective, or overloaded. Need to update, to reflect expansion of school, faculty, or curriculum.

175 - Desire to democratize decision-making; need for broader representation, input, or involvement in policy development.

78 - New administration; new president; new school or established as original council. Also general college reorganization (as opposed to internal growth of faculty, student body, or curriculum).

98 - Need or desire to improve communication; create broader dialogue, vehicle for better information flow, need for more representative sounding board.

21 - External or social source; desire to keep abreast of the times; natural trend; or response to specific outside pressure (i.e., accreditation board).

How Was It Decided?

Twenty institutions reported that a constitutional convention was convened to decide on the council idea; 233 reported that a special committee was established to do so; 96 indicated that the idea was referred to a standing committee of the institution; and 59 reported that some other action took place. Thirteen of the 20 institutions that required a constitutional convention were from the public sector; only 7 were from the private sector. There seemed to be no differences by size in institutions that had constitutional conventions, and they were also evenly spread by the highest degree awarded. The 233 institutions that reported a special committee had been set up to deal with the issue of the campus council were evenly spread by highest degree and by type of control. This is also true of the 96 institutions that had the matter considered by a standing committee.

Who Decided?

In addition to the matter of how the issue was considered, we were interested in the question of who considered it. In this case, 300 institutions reported the faculty; 194 reported students; 232 reported administrators; and 87 indicated some other individuals were involved in considering the idea. Of the 300 institutions that reported faculty participation in the senate decision, there were no differences in any of our institutional descriptor variables; almost all of them included some form of faculty participation in the decision. Student participation in the decision was another matter (see Table C). B.A.-awarding institutions

showed more student participation than other institutions by highest degree awarded, and slightly more student participation in the private sector. As institutional size increased, the amount of student participation in the decision decreased slightly. The more experimental calendar forms (trimester and 4-1-4) had more student participation in the decision than the semester and quarter calendars. On administration participation in the decisions, institutions were spread pretty evenly. Those institutions which reported that some other group participated in the decision were primarily sectarian institutions; probably church authorities and chaplains were involved here.

TABLE C

STUDENT GROUPS PARTICIPATING IN DECISION,
BY HIGHEST DEGREE

		Total Institutions
AA	52 (59%)	88
BA/BS	60 (71%)	85
MA/MS	38 (58%)	66
Professional	11 (68.7%)	16
Ph.D./Ed.D.	25 (48%)	52

STUDENT GROUPS PARTICIPATING IN DECISION,
BY CONTROL

		Total Institutions
Public	78 (51%)	153
Private-Sectarian	62 (74%)	84
Private-Nonsectarian	46 (65%)	71

TABLE C (continued)

STUDENT GROUPS PARTICIPATING IN DECISION,
BY INSTITUTIONAL SIZE

		Total Institutions
1 - 1000	67 (71%)	94
1001 - 2000	43 (63%)	68
2001 - 5000	35 (56.5%)	62
5001 - 7000	13 (54%)	24
7001 - 10,000	13 (59%)	22
10,001 - 15,000	7 (44%)	16
15,001 - 20,000	5 (45.5%)	11
20,001 - 30,000	3 (43%)	7
30,001 - 40,000	0 (0%)	2
40,001 +	0 (0%)	2

Who Ratified It?

Two hundred and eighty-four of our institutions indicated that some kind of ratifying activity took place; 78 indicated that no such action was needed. Of those requiring ratification, 40 indicated that a charter revision was necessary; 161 indicated that trustee approval had to take place; 202 said that the faculty acting as a whole had to approve it; 109 said that the student government or authorized student agency had to approve the proposal; and 177 said that the president had

to approve it. In two cases, the state legislature had to approve the idea, and 31 institutions indicated that some other form of ratification was required. Community colleges, by and large, required fewer ratifying actions than the other sectors, presumably because the administration of these schools could act with more autonomy in this area. Community colleges were also low in requiring charter revision in order for the campus senate to be established. Public institutions were also low in the number that required some form of ratifying action.

There were no differences in institutions requiring faculty or trustee approval. However, those institutions that required a separate student approval procedure tended to come heavily from the private sector (52%, compared to 34% of public institutions), whereas those that required presidential approval for the existence of the senate came heavily from the public sector (67%, compared to 56% of private institutions). The institutions that required charter revision tended to come equally from all kinds of institutions.

Elimination of Other Groups

We also were interested in whether or not the establishment of a campus senate necessitated the elimination of some other governmental bodies on the campus. One hundred and three institutions responded "yes." In 63 institutions, the faculty council was eliminated; in 31 the student council was eliminated; and in 37 institutions some other body (quite often an administrative council) was eliminated. Community colleges were generally low in terms of their need for eliminating other

governmental bodies, perhaps because of their lack of a tradition of strong faculty or student senates. Generally, there was no difference in the elimination of other campus bodies by control; public and private institutions seemed to have a proportionate number requiring some other campus body to be eliminated. The elimination of a separate student council was about equal by control.

The question of eliminating other bodies does relate to size. As institutions get larger, the tendency to eliminate the faculty council as a separate entity does increase; the exact reasons for this are not clear. Somewhat surprisingly, as size of institution is increased, you increase the number of institutions that maintained a separate student council along with a campus senate, even though exactly the reverse was the case for faculty councils. The maintenance of a separate administrative council apparently had no relationship to any institutional descriptors used in this study. Although we can not be sure of this, it does appear that there are a large number of institutions (we can not determine exactly how many) in our sample which had to eliminate both a separate student council and a separate faculty council or senate. Presumably, these institutions give genuine authority to this new body by eliminating virtually every other legislative organization on campus.

Starting from Scratch

Another approach to the origin of the campus council was to expand an existing agency rather than to create a new one out of whole cloth. One hundred and ten institutions in our sample indicated that this is how their campus council came into being, while 197 indicated this was

not the case in their institution. This trend was slightly related to size; the larger the institution, the greater the tendency to expand an existing agency in order to form the campus senate. The expanded agency, however, was the faculty senate for the largest number of institutions (43 campuses). The second most frequent agency for expansion into a campus council was the administrative council (25 campuses).

Previous Governance Models

We also were interested in what governance models were replaced by the development of campus councils. Here the spread was far larger than we had anticipated, with the most frequent models being fairly clearly organized on the separation-of-powers plan. In 50 institutions there was an administrative council. Forty-eight had separate faculty, administrative, and student councils (see Table D). Clearly, there was a diversity of patterns of governance configurations in our institutions before the onset of the campus senate. It is true, however, that the models of separate faculty and student councils, as well as separate faculty, student, and administrative councils, are far more common in the smaller institutions of 1,000 to 2,000 students. As you increase the size of the institution, the separtist model tends to decline. Larger institutions tend to use the academic department and central administration as governance mechanisms rather than the separatist notion of the faculty or the students. The institutions that previously had been run by a faculty town meeting or association are primarily small institutions, as one might expect.

TABLE D

PRIOR GOVERNANCE SYSTEM

25 - None; new school.

32 - Faculty town meeting, association.

34 - Faculty council, senate, committee.

31 - Faculty as a committee of the whole.

1 - Ranked faculty senate (e.g., tenured faculty, professional rank only).

50 - Administration council.

4 - Student council.

1 - Board of trustees, regents.

16 - President.

3 - Department heads, department chairmen.

0 - Staff, professional.

2 - Joint faculty-student council.

12 - Joint faculty-administration council.

0 - Joint administration-student council.

4 - Joint faculty-student-administration council.

30 - Separate faculty and student councils.

36 - Separate faculty and administration councils.

2 - Separate administration and student councils.

48 - Separate faculty, administration, and student councils.

8 - Other, or non-distinguishable named body (e.g., ad hoc committee, standing committee) not further specified.

25 - No response (includes irrelevant responses).

Role of the President of the Institution

Finally, we were interested in knowing what the role of the institution's chief executive officer was vis-a-vis the campus council. We found that in 138 institutions, the chief executive chaired the campus council; in 54 he was a member of the executive committee; in 129 the chief executive officer had a veto over council actions. In 109, the chief was a voting member of the council, while in 58 he was not a voting member; and in 40 institutions the chief executive was not even a member of the council.

There were some interesting differences in the role of the chief executive by institutional types. In institutions offering a professional degree, the chief executive was chairman of the council much more often than in the rest of the sample. Also, the chief executive did not have the veto power over council decisions in Ph.D.-granting institutions and professional degree institutions as much as in institutions offering other degrees. This may be related to the fact that he tends to be chairman of the council at these types of institutions and thus does not need the veto, since he participates early in council decisions. Having the chief executive officer of the institution chair the council did not seem to vary with institutional size, nor with the likelihood that he will have veto power, nor the likelihood that he will have voting membership in the senate. The chief executive had veto power in significantly fewer non-sectarian institutions (29%) than in public (46%) or sectarian (43%). Also, in the two-year degree programs, the chief executive was more frequently not a member of the

campus council at all. It may be that in some of these councils, the authority rests so completely with the chief executive that he need not respond to the council or participate in its activities in a systematic and regular way.

AREAS OF RESPONSIBILITY OF THE BROADLY REPRESENTATIVE CAMPUS COUNCIL

In giving institutions a range of choices regarding the various responsibilities of the council (see Table E), it is clear that the most frequent role of the council is advisory. The next most frequent role is having no responsibility at all, and the third is that of direct policy-making or legislative authority. (Remember, however, that most of our questionnaire respondents were administrators, and our data is limited by their perspective. The case studies will provide other views on council jurisdiction.)

It is interesting that the two major areas of direct policy-making or legislative activity of the campus council have to do with new academic programs and curriculum review, and with rules for campus social conduct. Admissions came in a relatively distant third. Other areas were surprisingly weak, particularly authority over student activity fees, faculty tenure and promotion, and the institutional budget. It would appear that as long as budgetary control is out of the hands of the senate or council, their authority and initiating power is weakened considerably. As far as the council's functions were concerned, there were almost no differences by institutional size. There were a few more large institutions that had a greater tendency to legislate faculty tenure decisions, and a slight

TABLE E

RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE BROADLY REPRESENTATIVE COUNCIL

	Advisory	*Policy-making (Legislative)*	*Appellate (Judicial)*	*Administrative (Responsibility to Implement)*	*No Responsibility*
New Academic Programs and Curriculum Review	198	135	17	24	37
Admissions Policy	174	105	8	16	66
Faculty Tenure and Promotion	131	55	17	12	145
Campus Social Activities (speakers, concerts, etc.)	141	79	6	26	110
Rules for Campus Social Conduct	144	121	13	18	79
Allocation of Student Activity Fees	97	52	7	12	183
Appointment of Administrative Personnel	132	12	3	6	177
Institutional Budget	180	28	5	11	125
Other	44	22	4	5	7
TOTALS	1241	609	80	130	929

decrease in the council's taking on an advisory role regarding student social activities as the size of the institution increased.

Legislation on the use of student fees does involve small institutions significantly more often than larger ones (27% of institutions under 1,000, less than 10% for all institutions over 5,000). And, as one might expect, many of the senates that have nothing to do with student fees at all tend to be on the larger campuses.

Faculty and Curriculum

By highest degree awarded, the two-year colleges are significantly lower than the other types of institutions in having any campus council involvement in legislating the curriculum. (See Table F.)

TABLE F

LEGISLATIVE ROLE FOR SENATE IN CURRICULUM, BY HIGHEST DEGREE

		Total Institutions
Certificate	0 (0%)	1
AA	23 (26%)	88
BA/BS	35 (41%)	85
MA/MS	34 (51.5%)	66
Professional	6 (37.5%)	16
Ph.D./Ed.D.	24 (46%)	52

There was also a general pattern among two-year institutions in the lack of use of the campus council as an advice-giving body. As one moves upward in terms of highest degree awarded, the advice-giving function increases significantly. More Ph.D.-granting institutions used the campus council in an advisory role regarding faculty tenure decisions than did two-year institutions (26% of the two-year colleges, 44% of the Ph.D.-granting institutions).

On actually legislating faculty tenure decisions, the M.A.-granting institutions are higher than any of the other degree levels with 26%. No kind of institution by highest degree tends to adjudicate faculty tenure decisions using the campus senate, and almost none of them administer faculty tenure decisions. In fact, almost half of the campus senates in our study had nothing to do with faculty tenure at all. (See Table E.)

Student Activities

As one might expect, the councils of B.A.-awarding institutions (presumably residential colleges) were significantly higher in the degree to which they legislate student activities (36% compared to 18% for A.A., 27% for Ph.D.). They also were almost twice as high (12%) in terms of administering student activities as the M.A. and two-year degree programs (3% to 5%). On the other hand, the professional degree institutions were also very high in having the campus council administer student activities, with 38%.

Similarly, half the institutions report they have nothing at all to do with the use of student fees, although those that do get involved

with advising on the use of student fees are mainly professional degree institutions, with the two-year colleges also heavily represented. However, on legislation regarding the use of student fees, the B.A.-awarding institutions score higher than any other segment of the sample.

On student conduct rules, the two-year colleges played an advisory role more often than other institutions (53% report having such a role). However, in terms of legislating rules of student conduct, the professional degree institutions were higher, with the B.A.-granting institutions also high. On legislating conduct rules for students, the private institutions were higher than the public institutions, while public institutions were higher in having no responsibility over student conduct whatsoever. They also were higher on having no responsibility over student fees.

Budgets (See Table E)

The involvement of the senate or council in the budget is a particularly interesting matter. In about half of the institutions, the senate or council plays an advisory role vis-a-vis the budget. Only about 8% of them have a direct, legislative involvement with budgetary matters, with the exception of the professional degree institutions, where 12% of the institutions have a legislative role. There are no differences

between public and private institutions in terms of the senate's involvement with the budget. Surprisingly enough, the trimester institutions had a slightly greater involvement in budgetary matters than any other calendar form--although the numbers here were not very persuasive. Respondents from 125 of our institutions indicated their senates had no responsibility for the budget whatsoever.

Other Institutional Differences

The campus councils of institutions having 4-1-4 calendars tended to be particularly laissez-faire. They significantly had no responsibility over the curriculum. They were also high on having no jurisdiction over faculty tenure, and they had little to do with student conduct rules. Whether this suggests that 4-1-4 institutions are more permissive regarding these rules, or whether there are simply other administrative agencies that handle them, is not clear from the data.

The professional degree-granting institutions were highest on using the campus council for personnel decisions, while the two-year colleges were low in this area. And, interestingly, over half the senates had nothing to do with personnel decisions.

Generally speaking, there were few discernible patterns outside of Table E that indicated how campus councils in different kinds of institutions governed differently.

THE BROADLY REPRESENTATIVE COUNCIL AND OTHER FORMS OF GOVERNANCE

The governance system of many of our institutions included a separate faculty and/or student council or senate which was still functioning along with the campus-wide council. Somewhat surprisingly, 188 institutions

indicated they still had a separate faculty council; 259 said they had a separate student council; and 215 said they still maintained an administrative council. Apparently, for many of our institutions the campus-wide council functions not as a brave new agency alone in the area of legislative and advice-giving influence, but rather as a new unit grafted onto a continuing structure. The public institutions in our sample were high in terms of maintaining a separate student (91%) and administrative (73%) council, but were low in maintaining a separate form of faculty council (58%). By highest degree, the two-year colleges were significantly higher in maintaining a separate student council; 92% reported that they have such a body in existence. Those having a separate faculty council were remarkably even by highest degree, although the professional degree institutions were somewhat higher, with 81% reporting they maintained a separate faculty council. There was little relationship with institutional size regarding the maintenance of separate faculty and student councils, although maintaining a student council increased slightly as institutional size increased. Maintaining a separate administrative council was not related to size.

Generally, the campus councils maintained liaison with the faculty, student, and/or administrative senates through the use of inter-locking memberships. Two hundred and thirty institutions reported the use of interlocking memberships, both on the council itself and on committees of the campus council. This was far and away the most frequent liaison-creating mechanism mentioned. In addition, 39 institutions sent published

reports and memos to the various other agencies on campus; 22 had some sort of verbal reports; and 20 had informal or personal contact with these other agencies only. Dual membership, the most frequently used form of liaison, guarantees that participants must be carrying a very heavy load through participating both in the campus senate and in one of the respective councils for faculty, administration, or students.

COLLECTIVE BARGAINING

Partly because of the results of our larger national survey, which showed that collective bargaining was considered a major threat to the senate concept, we were interested in finding out how many of our institutions were currently engaged in collective bargaining, and what their plans were for the future. We found that 98 of our institutions reported they had collective bargaining units, while 259 reported they had no such organization on campus. Institutions that had some form of collective bargaining were heavily from the public and non-sectarian sectors. Sectarian institutions have clearly not gotten into collective bargaining in any way.

Involvement in collective bargaining was related to institutional size. Institutions above 5,000 students had more collective bargaining than those below 5,000 students. The smaller institutions showed a trend toward concentration on faculty unionization, while the larger institutions showed unionization of both faculty and other groups on campus. Faculty in public institutions are more frequently organized for collective bargaining (45 of 153 institutions) than faculty in the private sector

(8 of 155 institutions). Professional staff were also more organized in the public sector for collective bargaining purposes, and also were organized more often in the larger institutions. Classified staff were increasingly organized as the size of the institution increased.

By highest degree awarded (see Table G), the Ph. D. degree institutions had the most collective bargaining of any level. A.A. degree institutions were next, and M.A. programs were third. The low end of the distribution is carried by the B.A. degree institutions and the professional degree institutions. In terms of frequency of bargaining, there was a clear-cut demarcation between the Ph.D., the M.A., and the two-year college programs, on the one hand (the range here being from 38% to 34% reporting collective bargaining), and the B.A. and professional institutions, on the other hand (with 16% and 12% reporting collective bargaining, respectively).

As far as faculty units for collective bargaining are concerned, the two-year colleges have the highest percentage, although many institutions simply did not answer this question. By and large, as the level of the highest degree awarded increased, the percentage of faculty involved in collective bargaining decreased and the amount of involvement in bargaining by non-faculty units on campus increased.

Institutions on the trimester system reported no cases of faculty involvement in collective bargaining, whereas 30 semester institutions, 13 quarter institutions, and 5 institutions with 4-1-4 calendars reported faculty collective bargaining.

TABLE G

INSTITUTIONS WITH FACULTY OR STAFF COLLECTIVE BARGAINING, BY HIGHEST DEGREE

		Total Institutions
Certificate	30 (34%)	88
BA/BS	14 (16.5%)	85
MA/MS	20 (30%)	66
Professional	2 (12.5%)	16
Ph.D./Ed.D	20 (38.5%)	52

There were still relatively few administrative collective bargaining agencies, and we found only one union involving graduate students. Classified staff were unionized throughout the distribution, the heaviest being in the Ph.D.-awarding sectors (17 of 52 institutions).

More institutions in the public sector than in the private had plans for collective bargaining in the future, as did more of the larger institutions. Most reported it is the faculty that plans to organize; the planned organization of classified staff was only rarely reported. Also, Ph.D.-granting institutions and two-year colleges were much higher than other institutions in anticipating future collective bargaining. Again, only very few of the 4-1-4 institutions indicated they have plans for establishing collective bargaining of any type in the future.

Virtually all of the institutions currently engaged in bargaining indicated that it was much too early to tell the effects of collective bargaining on the institution--that so far there was no particular effect (53 institutions reported this). Perhaps a year from now more institutions will be in a position to answer this crucial question.

COMPOSITION AND SELECTION PATTERNS

We also wanted to know a few things about who was on the senate or council, how often the groups met, and other procedural matters. We found that the most frequent pattern of membership seemed to be equal numbers of faculty and students. We have accurate membership data on only 150 of the 310 institutions in our sample. Of the 150, 5 indicated they have equal numbers of faculty and student members. This relationship began to decline in senates with more than ten faculty and student members. The number of students and faculty on the senate was to some extent related to institutional size (the larger the campus council or senate, the larger the institution tends to be). We also looked at the total size of the campus senates, as shown in Table H.

In terms of frequency of council meetings, we found a relatively wide variation in patterns. The most frequent pattern was that of monthly meetings (see Table I).

In Table J we are able to show who was involved in membership on campus councils or senates, although we can not indicate the number of members from each of the constituent groups on campus councils in the

TABLE H

SENATE SIZE

No. of Members	Institutions Reporting
0 - 10	24
11 - 20	104
21 - 30	50
31 - 40	27
41 - 50	22
51 - 75	34
76 - 100	19
101 - 200	15
200 +	4
No Answer	7

form of either means or medians. Table J reveals some rather important findings. For example, relatively few campus councils had trustees as members, and relatively few classified staff and alumni were involved. The pattern of electing members campus-wide was not as frequent as the pattern of election within a constituency. The most popular pattern seemed to be that of appointment by a constituency, and the third most common selection pattern was that of appointment by the chief executive officer of the campus. Relatively few campus councils deny any elected

TABLE I

FREQUENCY OF CAMPUS COUNCIL MEETINGS

35 - Weekly.

79 - Bi-weekly; twice a month; semi-monthly.

171 - Monthly.

23 - Bi-monthly; every other month.

32 - Two to four times in an academic year; quarterly; once a semester.

0 - Once a year or less.

14 - As needed; on call; irregularly.

or appointed member the right of the franchise as part of their participation in the campus council. This is a significant difference from boards of trustees, where it is common for student and faculty members to participate only in committee activities of the board, not in board decision-making with voting rights.

TABLE J

METHOD OF SELECTION OF THE BROADLY REPRESENTATIVE COUNCIL

	Total Number of Representatives from this Constituency	*Elected Campus-wide*	*Elected by Constituency (As in a Faculty-wide Election)*	*Appointed by Constituency (As Student Council Selects Its Representatives)*	*Appointed by Chief Executive Officer of the Campus*	*Have Voting Privileges*	*Involved in Committee Work Only*
Trustees	26	0	7	10	3	23	3
Faculty	330	46	232	47	21	306	11
Students	304	69	132	119	10	259	15
Campuswide Administrators	298	6	40	16	156	249	13
*Systemwide Administrators	0	0	3	1	6	14	2
Professional Staff (Counselors, Student Personnel, etc.)	117	7	53	15	42	115	5
Classified Staff (Clerical, etc.)	82	5	51	15	11	68	5
Alumni	37	0	18	9	6	20	3
Other	41	2	10	3	12	0	0

*Some institutions had procedures for electing or appointing representatives but had no incumbents.

CHAPTER 4

Analysis of Open-Ended Questionnaire Items: Virtues and Weaknesses of Broadly Representative Senates

Few significant correlations are easily discovered in the responses to our six open-ended questions. Rather, the responses, for the most part, reflect the diversity of the institutions and senates covered in our sample. At the same time, the responses are not randomly distributed by the five variables--type, control, size, calendar, and senate size--we have used in their analysis. Valuable relations were also discovered in general response frequencies, although their utility was limited by ambiguity in some cases and by lack of depth in others.

The six open-ended questions were all evaluative. They asked:

"From your perspective, what are the major virtues of a broadly representative council?"

"What future do you see for them at your institution?"

"In your opinion, has the creation of the broadly representative council had any positive or negative impact on the campus?"

"Have there been any critical incidents surrounding the operation of the broadly representative council?"

"What are the several most important problems with the broadly representative council on your campus?"

"How has the broadly representative council influenced the role of the chief executive in the coordination and operation of the institution? How might it affect the role in the future?"

The large majority of respondents were happy with the senates' performances. In each of the three questions where respondents had the choice of giving positive, negative, or mixed evaluations, nearly three-quarters indicated only positive influences. Seventy-two percent of those providing useful answers--172 out of 219--said they expected the senates to continue at their schools. The same percentage--190 out of 265--mentioned only positive impacts of the senates when asked if the creation of the senates had any positive or negative impacts on campus. Seventy-five percent of those providing useful answers--179 out of 239--said the senates had only positive effects on the chief executive of their institutions. No single type of institution or senate was systematically excluded from these groups, although respondents from large senates more frequently mentioned both general negative effects and negative effects on their chief executives.

Most Important Problems

Given the possible respondent and questionnaire positive bias discussed in the methodology section at the beginning of Chapter 3, perhaps a more balanced picture of the senates can be obtained when answers to the

question on problems surrounding senate operations are stressed. Both in this question and in the rare negative responses to the question on general effects, jurisdictional conflicts and procedural and structural problems with internal operations emerged, respectively, as the first and second most frequent problems experienced.

Of the 308 problems mentioned by 216 respondents to the question on major problems, 85 were related to jurisdictional problems and 73 were related to internal operations. Large but diminishing numbers of respondents also reported problems related to policy-making responsibilities (55), representation (48), apathy (31), and feelings of senate powerlessness (17).

Of the 24 senates experiencing jurisdictional problems with administrators or administrative bodies, there were more public, large (over 10,000 students), and Ph.D.-granting institutions than probable. The senates at these schools also tended to be larger than average; there were as many with memberships over 50 as under 25--nine in each case. In this same group, the second-largest number, 22 respondents, reported problems with senate infringements on what had been considered faculty prerogatives. Seven of these reported jurisdictional problems between their senates and faculty bargaining units. Other conflicts involved faculty budgets, promotions, tenure, and salaries. These schools generally fit the institutional characteristics profile of the sample at large.

Overall, the schools experiencing or having experienced jurisdictional difficulties tended to be larger and to grant more advanced degrees than

the sample at large. There were significantly more schools over 10,000 than probable--18 (21%). There were also more M.A.- and Ph.D.-granting institutions than probable. Their senates, however, tended to be comparatively small, though no smaller than the norm for the sample at large.

Under internal operations, the largest number, 27 respondents, said the slowness and unwieldiness of their often elaborately structured, and generally heavily-used, senates was a major problem. Respondents in this group were predominately from public and B.A.-granting instituions with, logically enough, larger than average senates. Nearly half--12 of the 26 for which size figures were available--had senates of 50 members or more.

Other complaints in this category concerned excessive time demands on senate participants (14 mentions), procedural issues and constitutional constraints (13 mentions), and structurally related representation and participation problems (7 mentions).

For the entire group experiencing problems related to "internal operations," B.A.-granting institutions were significantly over-represented--27 (37%). Ph.D.-granting institutions were significantly under-represented--8 (11%). There were also more small (under 2000 students)--45 (62%)--and fewer middle-sized (2000-10,000) institutions--19 (28%)--than probable.

Senate problems with policy-making responsibilities are evidently frequent, but analysis of those reported was difficult since respondents often failed to even minimally describe the nature of these problems. Those respondents who did elaborate mentioned problems with role definition,

lack of initiative, partisan divisions, and specific areas of controversy (such as, for example, the area of academic policy). There were more sectarian--18 (33%)--and correspondingly fewer private, non-sectarian schools than probable--10 (19%). There were also slightly more small (under 2000 students) and large (over 10,000 students) schools represented here than probable.

Problems in achieving equitable numerical representation (13 mentions) and in resolving communications problems between representatives and their constituencies (11 mentions) dominated the group of 48 problems related to representation. A larger number of public and Ph.D.-granting institutions were represented here than probable--29 (60%) and 14 (29%) respectively--and they were particularly over-represented in the complaints over inequitable representation. The senates were also significantly larger than average--17 (35%) had over 50 members.

These results all support the hypothesis that larger, and presumably more sophisticated and heterogeneous, institutions (senate size is correlated with institutional size) will be more sensitive to the appearance and mechanics of representation. Interestingly enough, however, the 11 respondents complaining of communications problems tended to be from smaller than average schools and smaller than average senates.

There were only very slight variations by institutional and senate characteristics for the institutions represented by those complaining of problems related to apathy. Of the 31 mentions, 14 concerned student apathy, 4 concerned failure of participation during routine sessions,

and 2 concerned faculty apathy. The four responses specifically mentioning that senate participation "lags when no major issues are apparent" imply that these senates have to provide "good theater" to work properly. This may suggest something more important about the functions of the senates in general or at specific types of institutions. Many of the answers to the question on the virtues of the senates also suggested this "cathartic" function.

Of the institutions represented in the 17 responses related to feelings of powerlessness, there were more small and two-year institutions than probable--10 (58%) and 7 (42%) respectively. Most of their senates were also small. Thirteen of the 17 senates had 25 or fewer members. Twelve of these complaints concerned frustration over an advisory role, and 4 concerned administration or faculty domination of senate powers.

A final problem for the senates, one which is somewhat less pronounced as yet but obviously growing, is the threat of collective bargaining. Most of the senates affected so far are in public schools. Six of the seven respondents mentioning this as a jurisdictional problem with faculty were from public schools. Twelve other respondents, in predicting disbandment or uncertain futures for their senates, cited collective bargaining. "The future depends on development of legal bargaining agencies and on the scope of issues subject to bargaining," said one administrator-respondent. Nearly all of these were from public schools as well. They also tended to be from larger than average schools.

Composite Profiles

Clearly, no type of school or senate is singularly drawn to any one, any pattern, or all of these problems. However, large senates (over 50 members) seem to be drawn to most of them. There were more large senates than probable, and often significantly more, experiencing jurisdictional problems with the administration, problems with slowness and unwieldiness and with internal operations in general (slightly more), with representation, and with apathy. There were slightly more acting as a negative influence on their chief executives, and more inspiring their representatives to mention them as negative influences on campus. More chief executives of large schools represented by these senates, however, reportedly were reluctant to oppose their policy recommendations.

Though no other type of institution or senate appeared so frequently in the "negative" categories, senates in public, Ph.D.-granting and large schools had more than their proportionate share of problems. Senates in public schools had more jurisdictional problems with administrations, more problems with slowness and unwieldiness, more policy-making and representational problems, more influence towards fortifying their chief executives' role, more problems with collective bargaining units, and fewer respondents predicting bright futures for them. But they also had slightly more respondents describing them as serving a "democratizing function," and fewer problems with internal operations and student apathy; and they were reported fewer times as having "negative influence" on their chief executives.

The same general pattern (many problems and some redeeming virtues) was reported for the senates from Ph.D.-granting and large (over 10,000 students) schools. The specific problems and virtues were virtually the same as those reported above for the public institutions. The senates of Ph.D.-granting institutions have the additional reported virtue of successful implementation of their recommendations by their chief executives, while the senates of large institutions have more representatives reporting an explicitly managerial function, and fewer reporting "revitalizing functions" and positive influences on their chief executives to de-centralize decision-making.

Given that problems were more clearly expressed than virtues, it is difficult to describe any types of institutions or senates as clearly more likely to be successful in their attempts at shared governance. However, fewer of almost every type of problem were mentioned by respondents from sectarian schools, and at least two "positive influences"--the "democratizing function" and a reduction of campus unrest--were more frequently cited by these respondents.

Similarly, the senates seem to be working well, on the average, at two-year institutions. Although there were slightly more problems with feelings of powerlessness and a greater tendency to fortify presidential roles there than probable, there were also fewer mentions of problems with apathy (slightly fewer), negative or uncertain futures, and general negative impacts on campus. There is some evidence that the senates commonly serve to re-inforce and to "revitalize" the status quo at these

two-year schools rather than to shift governance roles since there were fewer mentions of influences towards de-centralizing decision-making as well as a larger number mentioning the support which the senates offer their chief executives.

The responses for the other types of institutions were mixed and even occasionally conflicting. However, on the basis of the overwhelming number of positive responses to most of the open-ended items, the reporting of more virtues than problems at private, proprietary, B.A.-, M.A.-, and professional-degree granting, small (under 2000 students), and middle-sized (2000-10,000 students) institutions, schools with experimental calendars (trimester or 4-1-4), and small (under 26) and middle-sized (26-50) senates would seem to suggest a general satisfaction with the senates there, at least by our respondents.

Major Virtues

Like the major problem areas, the major virtues of the senates--their communications-improving function and their "democratizing" function--recurred in responses to a number of the questions. In the question specifically asking for virtues of the senates, the former function was mentioned by two-thirds of the respondents and the latter by one-third (many cited more than one virtue). Again, in the question on positive or negative impacts on campus, the positive responses echoed these virtues, nearly half citing improved communications and nearly one-quarter citing improved representation in decision-making. In the question on influence of the senates on chief executives, the largest

number said the senates improved their chief executives' ability to communicate, and the next two largest categories were cases in which the senates had either influenced the president to share decision-making with them and/or to delegate policy-making responsibilities as a matter of course, or in which the chief executive was said to get "assistance" or "input" in policy-making decisions from them.

Most frequently these responses were phrased so succinctly that further analysis of them was impossible. However, one matter of great importance is clearly suggested by the variety--such as it was--within the two categories. Most interesting are the contrasting comments on the meaning of democratization and improved communication for management. Some responding administrators made the point that management is no longer possible for them without representation. For example, one chairman of a College Assembly in a community college in New York observed, "Decisions finally made through shared governance tend to have a better chance of being accepted by the college community." The assistant to the president at a private college in Connecticut adds, "It expands the decision-making process and allows for greater input, and more unity, once decisions are made. Without representation, every group would always think they weren't being heard."

Other administrators felt that representation inhibits management. "The creation of University Council gave communication and representation to all aspects of the university," wrote one administrator. "However, I find that the faculty grow very tired of the time-consuming aspects of it.

The students like it because it gives them a sense of power. The trustees feel it . . . deals with details which ought to be mainly administrative decisions. I think it will phase out in time." One president of a private college in Indiana agreed: "It does permit leadership to be distributed. It expands involvement. However, it also slows decisions. I am not optimistic about it because of its slowness."

The senates are characteristically cumbersome from an efficiency standpoint--their protracted debates, appeal for frustrated faculty and student politicans, and consideration of "trivial" matters all impede managerial goals. In those institutions where they are not indispensable for political reasons, their future often seems to rest precariously on their ability to demonstrate that they can govern "efficiently" in the administrative sense. Sincere receptivity to communication inputs into decision-making is also alternately jeopardized and encouraged by the shifting winds of administrative philosophy and experience.

Respondents mentioned other "positive" functions and impacts of the senates far less frequently. Of the other senate "virtues," a "consensus building" or "revitalizing" function was reported by 10% (30) of the respondents, and "watchdog" and explicitly managerial functions were also infrequently mentioned.

Forty-three respondents to a later question, the question on positive or negative impacts, said the senates reduced incidence of campus unrest. The tension between managerial and democratic functions is most noticeable here, as is their frequent interdependence. Elements of both functions

are found in the following response of a professor at a university in New England:

> I believe the Senate was a major factor--perhaps the critical one--in averting crisis in spring 1970. (We had Jerry Rubin, Abbie Hoffman, and Dave Dellinger just after Cambodia!!) Also, I believe the administration has responded to students and faculty at times simply because of the existence of this body, with its potential for broadly publicizing grievances.

The democratic function is stressed by some. "[The Senate has] definitely increased faculty-student interaction," said an acting senate chairman of a Kansas university, "and provided a safety-valve and means of settling disputes in crisis situations."

On the other hand, some respondents, especially some administrators, stress managerial aspects of "defusing dissent." "We have a tauter ship now," said an executive vice president in Utah. "[There is] less distortion, less opportunity for finger-pointing, and considerably more accountability." Similarly, an administrative vice president in Ohio argues a natural correspondence between student personal growth and student support of the college. "Those students who have taken an active role have profited from the experience and are more supportive of the college than might otherwise have been the case," he said.

Specific problem-solving achievements were also mentioned as "positive impacts," but only infrequently. Twenty-one respondents, less than 10% of the positive impact responses, described specific problems their councils had successfully resolved, or mentioned major policies successfully

legislated by them. Many of these were explicitly described as "reform measures." They included the revamping of judicial codes, the approval of alcohol on campus, the creation of new academic programs, phasing out of an experimental college, and solution of campus parking problems. Like so many of the answers to other questions, most of these responses were vague and failed to specify the nature of the problems which the councils had successfully resolved. For example, the senate chairman of an institution in Missouri merely reported, "There is evidence that the senate has performed responsibly and effectively in shaping critical policies."

There was a scattering of other responses concerning such matters as an increased interest in education and impacts on long-range planning.

Influence on Chief Executive

Perhaps the best measure of the impacts of the senates was the question which asked for their influence on chief executives. Judging from the responses, the senates have primarily played a peripheral role in college governance. Only 56 of the 307 senates--18% of the sample--were described as playing a central role in decision-making. These institutions tended to have slightly more advanced programs than average, and their senates tended to be medium-sized (20-50 members). In other characteristics they appeared to closely fit the profile of the respondent group as a whole.

One hundred and forty-five respondents--nearly half of the sample--described their senates as playing a clearly subordinate role in decision-making, either offering "advice" or "assistance" when asked, helping the president to communicate with various campus constituencies, or certifying presidential decisions and thereby enhancing their legitimacy. The first two functions were mentioned by representatives of a random group of institutions and senates, but the latter "role fortification" function was most frequently mentioned by respondents from large, Ph.D.-granting, and small, public, two-year institutions. Apparently, chief executives from these types of schools have at least this one thing in common. They are in a unique position to use broadly representative senates as vehicles to forge a tighter consensus behind their policy decisions.

Thirty-nine respondents--13% of the sample--said their senates had no effect or virtually no effect on the role of their chief executives. Most of these respondents did not elaborate on the reasons for this lack of influence, but those who did elaborate represented a wide range of chief executives and senates. Four respondents said their senates had little effect because their chief executives were already "broadly liberal and democratic" men. One said his chief executive "would welcome senate input, but the senate is so impotent that it has not influenced much of anything."

Many of the others described chief executives who had "higher loyalties" than to the senates. A dean of faculty in Connecticut reported,

for example, "The chief executive officer is still the chief executive officer--that is really his job, and the board expects him to do it. Since 'the boss' is responsible to the board, I don't think the council will change his role." A final few described chief executives who saw their role as unchanged except for a new responsibility, senate management. One administrator wrote: "The council has had little basic impact upon the way in which the chief executive functions, although it has meant a difference in the tactics which he must employ and has probably meant a greater drain on his time than before."

There were only minor variations between these schools and the sample at large. There were slightly more private, non-sectarian, and M.A.-granting institutions than probable, and slightly fewer sectarian and two-year institutions, but all other types were close to being proportionately distributed, as were senate sizes.

The remaining 26 useful responses--9% of the sample--could be accurately termed "negative influences," in terms of their explicit value-orientations. A few of these mentioned an over-restriction of presidential powers. Others mentioned personality or institutional conflicts and increased time demands on chief executives.

Overall, the respondents complaining of negative influences on their chief executives represented smaller-than-average schools. Not one of the 26 had over 10,000 students. Professional degree-granting institutions were over-represented, and Ph.D.-granting schools correspondingly under-represented. Though senates at sectarian schools were

characteristically more successful than average, there were also more sectarian schools represented in this group than probable, and fewer public schools. For this smaller-than-average group, there were a relatively large number of larger senates. Seven of the 26 had over 75 members.

Summary

The large majority of respondents to the questionnaire were happy with the senates' performances. In each of the three questions in which respondents had the option of giving positive, negative, or mixed evaluations, nearly three-quarters indicated only positive influences.

Improved communications across constituencies and "democratization" emerged, respectively, as the major virtues of the senates. Most frequently these responses were phrased so succinctly that further analysis of them was impossible, but the tension between the managerial and democratic functions was noticeable in many of them, as was the frequent interdependence of these two functions.

Specific problem-solving achievements were also mentioned as "positive impacts," but only infrequently. A "consensus building" or "revitalizing" function, a "watch-dog" function, and explicitly managerial functions were also infrequently mentioned.

We felt that because of possible respondent and questionnaire bias, a more balanced picture of the senates might be obtained when emphasis was given to answers to the question on problems surrounding senate

operations. Jurisdictional problems and problems with internal operations were most frequently mentioned there and in the rare negative responses to the question on general effects. Other problems reported related to policy-making responsibilities, representation, apathy, and feelings of senate powerlessness.

Large senates had the most problems. Senates in public, Ph.D.-granting, and large schools also had more than their proportionate share of problems. On the other hand, senates in sectarian and two-year institutions appeared to be more successful than those in other types of institutions. Responses from the other types of institutions and senates were mixed, and even occasionally conflicting, but the presence of a preponderance of virtues against problems suggested general satisfaction with the senates at each of them.

However, this was evidently a general satisfaction with contributing at the margins of decision-making. Only 18% of the senates were described as playing a central role in college governance. More frequently, respondents described their senates as either offering advice or assistance when asked, helping the president to communicate with various campus constituencies, or certifying presidential decisions and thereby enhancing their legitimacy.

CHAPTER 5

General Conclusions of the Questionnaire Analysis

Our questionnaire, like most sent to institutions of higher education, was generally filled out by administrators. Consequently, our questionnaire does not directly reflect the feelings of students and faculty about the functions and inception of the campus senates. This knowledge is particularly important in interpreting the responsibilities of the campus senates in Table E, since students and faculty might disagree on the interpretations given for their particular campus. Here are some general conclusions that seem to us to be relatively unrelated to this problem:

1. Campus senates did not all start at the same time; 143 are more than four years old.

2. The idea of a campus senate seemed to come primarily from faculty and administrators, with some student input.

3. Campus unrest was not the major reason given for the start of the campus senates; far more important were a desire to democratize decision-making, a previously unworkable system, a need to improve communication, and a new president or some other college re-organization.

4. The existence of a campus senate did mean the elimination of some other governance agency in 122 institutions. However, most still have either a faculty senate, a student senate, or both. The campus senate has not in most cases become the legislative body on campus.

5. Over 125 institutions started their campus senates by expanding membership of an already existing agency--in most cases their faculty senate.

6. The institution's president usually chairs the council and usually has a veto over council decisions.

7. Campus senates or councils usually play an advisory role; they are involved in legislative or decision-making roles about half as often. In many crucial areas such as the budget and faculty promotions, half of the senates report that they have no responsibility at all.

8. Contact with other governance agencies is usually made through overlapping membership.

9. Ninety-eight campuses reported the existence of collective bargaining units, a mixture of faculty, professional, and classified staff units. Most respondents thought it was too early to say what the impact of collective bargaining had been on their campus.

10. Very few senates have trustee, classified staff, or alumni members. Usually, members of a senate are elected by their constituencies.

11. Institutions do differ in terms of some of their senate characteristics by institutional size, by calendar, and, to a lesser extent, by control and highest degree awarded.

CHAPTER 6

Introduction to the Case Studies

The case study institutions were not chosen from how well they mirrored their class or type of institutions in the sample at large. Neither has representation of all classes and types of institutions been attempted; all of the schools are comparatively small and none of them offer two-year programs. For the record, Stockton State College, in Pomona, New Jersey, is a public, B.A.-awarding institution of under 2000 students which operates on a trimester calendar. The senate there has had 30 members until recently. Sangamon State College, in Springfield, Illinois, is also public, grants the M.A., and also has approximately 2000 students. It operates on a quarter calendar, however, and has twice as many members in its senate.

Mundelein College in Chicago is a private women's church-related institution, also of under 2000 students. It grants the B.A. and operates under a trimester calendar. The senate at Mundelein has 35 members. California School of Professional Psychology is a private, non-sectarian school in San Francisco. It has closer to 200 students, grants the Ph.D., operates under a trimester calendar, and has a 12-member senate.

Specifically, at least three of the case studies--those on Sangamon State, Stockton State, and the California School of Professional Psychology (CSPP)--were selected to show a common predicament of college chief executives: the need to balance senate and Board of Trustees interests. Jurisdictional problems are prominent in all of the case studies, although unfortunately the most common jurisdictional conflicts, those between senates and faculties, are only a factor at two of these schools, Stockton State and Mundelein, and even there they are essentially peripheral factors. Most of the jurisdictional conflicts in the case studies are between the senates and administrative bodies or chief executives. In addition, the Stockton study provides an excellent example of a growing threat to the senates--the collective bargaining movement. The cases, then, were chosen to typify the problems and processes revealed in the questionnaire analysis, particularly the open-ended items discussed in Chapter 4. The information was gathered during the 1972-73 academic year, and does not reflect changes that have taken place since that time.

The data from our participant observers on each of the case study campuses are rather pessimistic, compared to the questionnaire responses from the same institutions. Some of this pessimism may be due to the "agony of rising expectations" with which some faculty and students entered the political arena. Most likely, the senates are neither as successful as the questionnaire data would suggest, nor as unsuccessful as the case studies would suggest. Aside from qualifying the optimism of the questionnaire data, however, the case studies have the virtues of highlighting the variability of the human element in these governance dramas and emphasizing a number of the problems, frustrations, and misperceptions

to which the senates are so vulnerable, as well as the central issues of authority, representation, and competence.

It is most interesting to compare the reactions, strategies, and styles of the individuals who play similar roles and occupy similar positions at the different institutions. This is especially the case when superficially similar Sangamon State and Stockton State are compared. Specifically, the reader should look for differences in style of participation and for the motivations of constituency groups and the variety of values and pressures determining those motivations. Does the administration have to balance conflicting interests of trustees and senates? Do faculty members want to maintain authority over academic matters for themselves? Does the administration openly oppose senate decisions, hold back input for tactical reasons, or openly cooperate with the senate all along the way? Do people disagree on what is going on?

Personality differences and the strategy of interest groups also frequently play major roles in determining the course and success of the senates. One president may be decisive and aggressive while another may be more given to quiet, but calculated, restraint in exercising his influence. Faculty and student leaders may be inclined toward militance or conciliation. Some interest groups may choose not to participate in the senate and to maintain an independent power base, or they may choose to participate.

It is also worth comparing the senate at the California School of Professional Psychology with the other three. It appears that the CSPP senate is distinguished by the high level of professional and personal trust and respect between the various constituent groups, a correspondingly tight coordination between policy-making

and administrative implementation, a high level of dedication to the idea of shared governance and the other principles embodied in the school, and a policy of relative non-interference in campus affairs by the statewide Board of Directors. The institution also has a specific and broadly understood mission.

Institutional Functioning Inventory (IFI) profiles and tables appear before each of the four case studies. The IFI assesses campus climate on eleven scales. The IFI was administered to either full or representative samples of students, faculty, and administrators at each of the institutions. The scales of the IFI are:

1. Intellectual-Aesthetic Extracurriculum (IAE): the extent to which activities and opportunities for intellectual and aesthetic stimulation are available outside the classroom.

2. Freedom (F): the extent of academic freedom for faculty and students as well as freedom in their personal lives for all individuals in the campus community.

3. Human Diversity (HD): the degree to which the faculty and student are heterogeneous in their backgrounds and present attitudes.

4. Concern for Improvement of Society (IS): the desire among people at the institution to apply their knowledge and skills in solving social problems and prompting social change in America.

5. Concern for Undergraduate Learning (UL): the degree to which the college--in its structure, function, and professional commitment of faculty--emphasizes undergraduate teaching and learning.

6. Democratic Governance (DG): the extent to which individuals in the campus community who are directly affected by a decision have the opportunity to participate in making the decision.

7. Meeting Local Needs (MLN): institutional emphasis on providing educational and cultural opportunities for all adults in the surrounding communities.

8. Self-Study and Planning (SP): the importance college leaders attach to continuous long-range planning for the total institution, and to institutional research needed in formulating and revising plans.

9. Concern for Advancing Knowledge (AK): the degree to which the institution--in its structure, function, and professional commitment of faculty--emphasizes research and scholarship aimed at extending the scope of human knowledge.

10. Concern for Innovation (CI): the strength of institutional commitment to experimentation with new ideas for educational practice.

11. Institutional Esprit (IE): the level of morale and sense of shared purposes among faculty and administrators.

In addition to these scales, the reports on the IFI also refer to the more interesting item scores which comprise the scales. (Many times, the items of the IFI will tell one as much or more than the generalized scale scores can.) The IFI profiles were written without reference to the case study data for each of the campuses in order to try to eliminate any "halo effect." The IFI interpretation may differ markedly from the case study data, particularly in the Stockton materials. The IFI represents

a broader segment of the campus population, but also a segment that is less familiar with the workings of the campus senate machinery. Again, the reader is encouraged to read the case study material, look at the IFI profile and read the interpretation of it, and come to his or her own conclusion. The Institutional Functioning Inventory is produced by Educational Testing Service in Princeton, New Jersey, as part of its Institutional Research Program in Higher Education.

IFI PROFILE OF MUNDELEIN COLLEGE*

We were able to get IFI scores on Mundelein from 1969 and 1971, as well as 1973 data on the campus and on members of the Campus Council. The IFI profiles generally appear to be quite stable, with a strong administration which is clearly in charge. In addition, the institution seems to have a sense of tradition which some other institutions in our samples do not have. This sense of tradition may well mean the difference in terms of the ability and willingness of faculty and students to accept a fairly administrator-dominated setting. However, faculty IFI profiles show some changes from 1969 to 1971, particularly declines in Self-Study and Planning (SP), Concern for Innovation (CI), Freedom (F), and Institutional Esprit (IE), as well as gains in Human Diversity (HD) and Meeting Local Needs (MLN).

At the same time that there has been strong administration, there quite clearly have been many efforts to pull students and faculty into decision-making and to get innovations started on the campus. It also does seem that the administration has deliberately sought out student and faculty views on a number of questions before making decisions. In this situation, even though the decision is made by the administration,

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*Campus Council (1973) data based on 15 faculty members, 14 students, and 4 administrators.

there may well be a feeling of high morale because of the fact that, although people's opinions are solicited, the administration "takes the heat" by making the decision. Certain kinds of individuals find this formalt relatively acceptable and rewarding, while others do not.

It does appear, however, that in recent years the faculty has had more doubts than in the past. The morale or esprit scale, for example, shows a significant decline among campus constituencies from 1969 to 1971, and the faculty score for 1973 is well below the administrators on Institutional Esprit (IE). Some of the faculty items on morale also indicate that this is a fairly significant decline. On the other hand, Democratic Governance (DG) scores remain high, suggesting that the participatory style has not changed much but that perhaps the faculty members' aspiration for more involvement has increased, or that they are willing to have administrators control as long as the faculty are asked for advice on occasion.

The faculty does not seem to be as elitist in their orientation as are some other institutions we have studied, and one has the feeling that they will be more willing to "pull together" if they feel the administration is actively concerned with their interests and well-being. This is an institution that probably can tolerate a fair degree of internal strife and still remain viable, due partly to the tradition and partly to the relatively consistent pattern of the operation of the administrators.

One also suspects that this is the sort of campus in which the advice-giving function of the Campus Council or senate would be acceptable

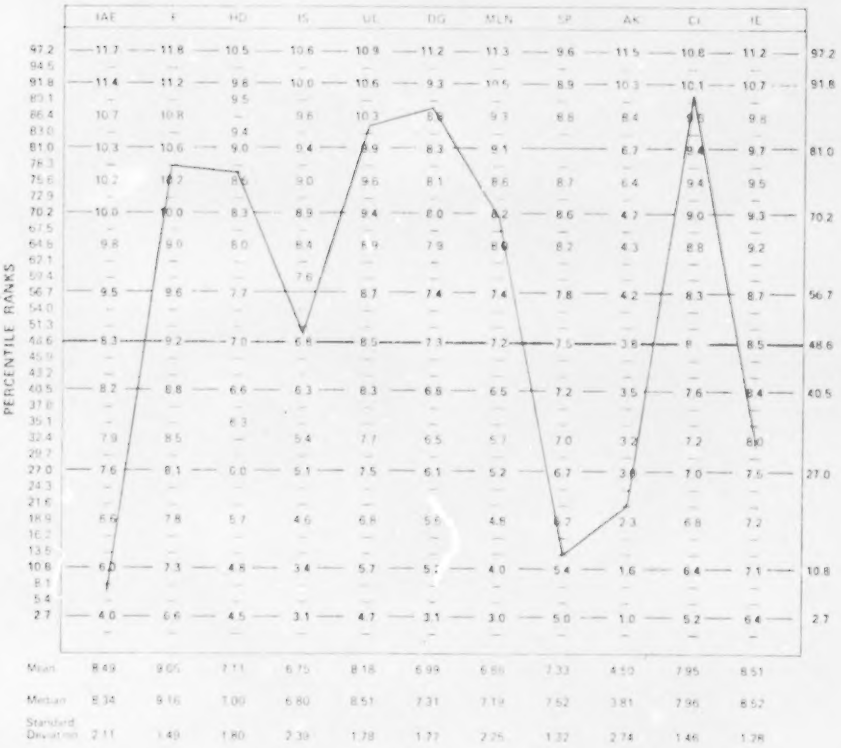
to everybody, whereas on some other campuses advice-giving would be seen as a political ploy and a way of avoiding genuine responsibility, which would be interpreted as decision-making and almost nothing else. At this institution, if the administration were willing to even consider the advice of the Campus Council, that in itself might be enough for the council members and the rest of the constituencies.

The profile does reveal, then, an institution with some outstanding strengths--an administration clearly in charge but which also has been able to take account of the specific personal needs for freedom and democratic participation which are characteristic of their particular students and faculty. These groups may be somewhat more docile than on other campuses, but nevertheless the administration seems to be meeting their needs fairly well. The campus senate, however, may wish to take the organization further and faster than tradition or habit would suggest is typical of this campus. The case study data should help to answer this question.

MUNDELEIN COLLEGE–COUNCIL

INSTITUTIONAL FUNCTIONING INVENTORY

Distribution of Scale Means, with Percentile Equivalents
(based on faculty means at 37 comparison group institutions described in the *IFI Preliminary Technical Manual*)



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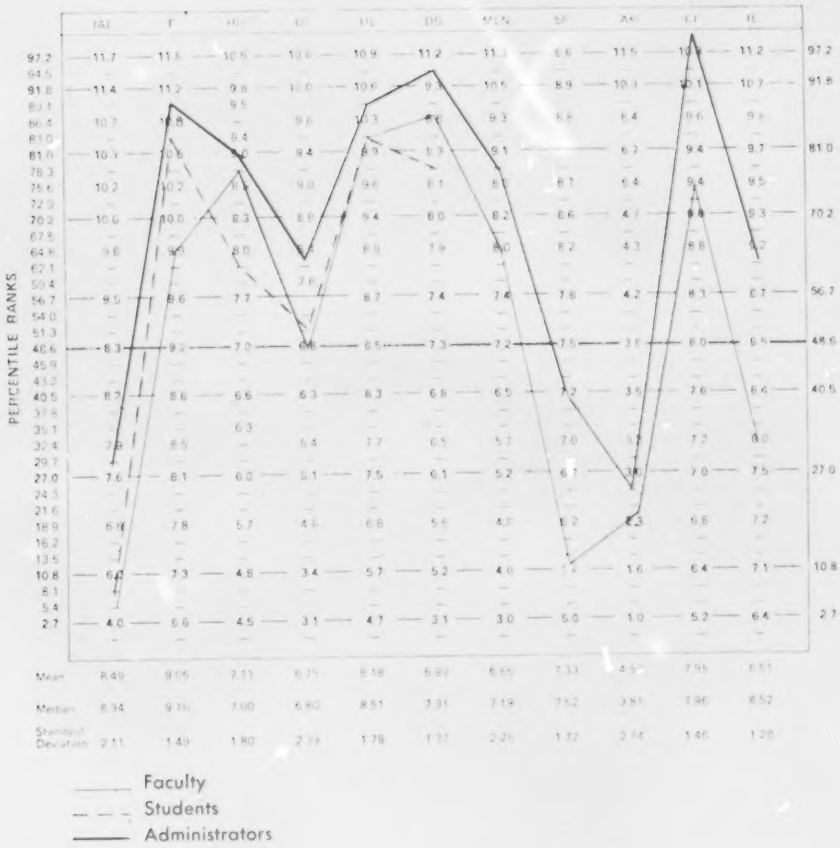
MUNDELEIN COLLEGE–COUNCIL

INSTITUTIONAL FUNCTIONING INVENTORY

Distribution of Scale Means, with Percentile Equivalents
(based on faculty means at 52 comparison group institutions described in the *IFI Preliminary Technical Manuals*)



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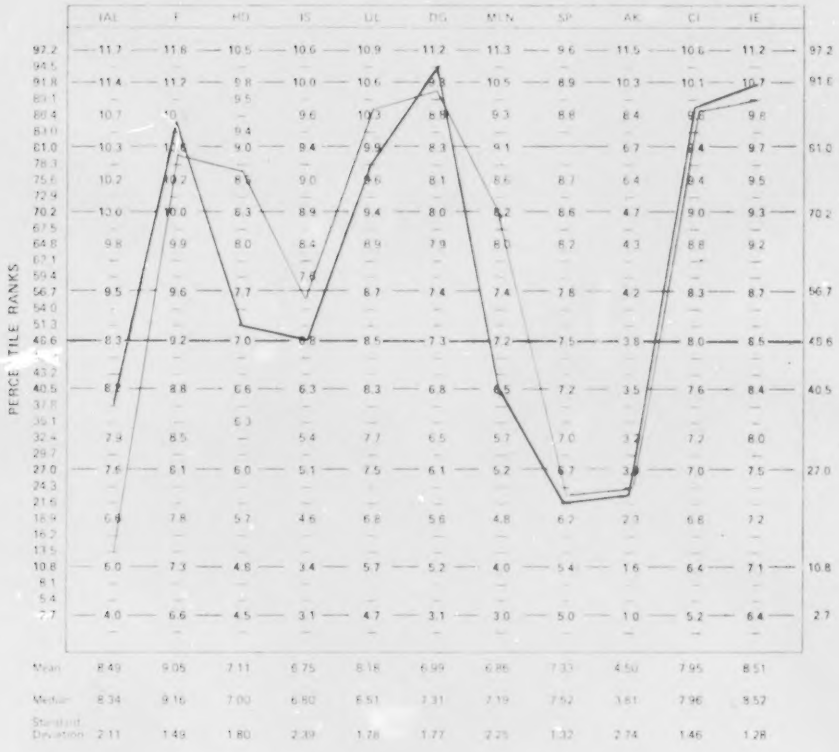
ADMINISTRATION–MUNDELEIN

INSTITUTIONAL FUNCTIONING INVENTORY

Distribution of Scale Means, with Percentile Equivalents
(based on faculty means at 37 comparison group institutions described in the *IFI Preliminary Technical Manual*)



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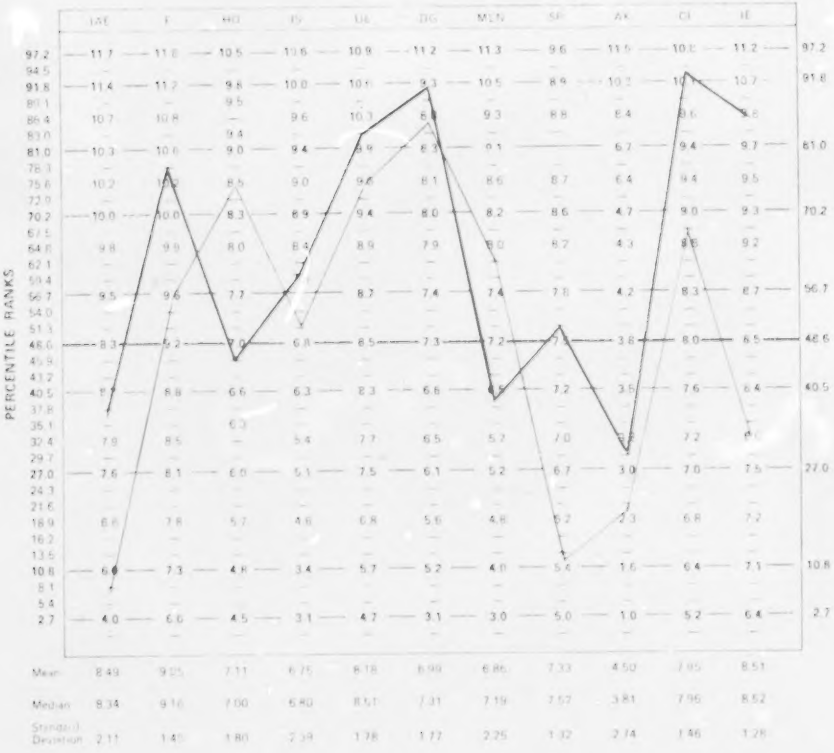
FACULTY–MUNDELEIN

INSTITUTIONAL FUNCTIONING INVENTORY

Distribution of Scale Means, with Percentile Equivalents
(based on faculty means at 37 comparison group institutions described in the *IFI Preliminary Technical Manual*)



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MUNDELEIN COLLEGE

COMPARISONS OF THREE GROUPS ON SIX SCALES

OF IFI, 1969 AND 1971 SCORES

		Students		*Faculty*		*Administration*	
		1969	*1971*	*1969*	*1971*	*1969*	*1971*
IAE	N	109	99	58	43	12	13
	X	8.4	5.9	8.1	5.4	8.1	6.2
	SD	1.9	2.2	2.0	2.2	1.0	2.0
Freedom	N	109	98	58	42	12	13
	X	9.3	8.5	10.3	9.6	10.8	10.5
	SD	2.2	2.1	1.7	2.2	.8	1.6
Human Diversity	N	109	99	58	43	12	13
	X	6.5	8.0	6.9	8.5	7.7	8.7
	SD	2.5	2.2	2.2	2.1	2.0	1.8
Improvement of Society	N	109	99	58	43	12	13
	X	7.4	7.2	7.8	7.0	6.8	7.3
	SD	2.2	2.3	2.2	2.5	2.3	1.9
Undergraduate Learning	N	109	99	57	43	12	13
	X	8.8	9.6	10.0	9.7	9.7	10.4
	SD	2.2	1.9	1.5	1.9	1.4	1.1
Democratic Governance	N	109	97	58	42	12	13
	X	9.8	9.4	9.5	8.7	10.0	9.2
	SD	2.7	2.7	2.6	3.5	2.5	2.4

MUNDELEIN COLLEGE

"I must admit that finally even I (whom I had considered among the most optimistic of the bunch) wonder of our purpose--if any!? Sister Thornton and I talk about being heads of a defunct organization. . . . Good God, life rolls by and here we sit quibbling about the minutes of the last meeting. . . . Perhaps I've been a 'leader' too long. I've finally realized you can't push people who have already set their priorities--and believe me, Senate ain't too high on anyone's list."

The disillusionment and the reflective tone of these words, written by the student vice-head of the Mundelein College Community Government, are all the more striking when it is known that they were written after what was by all accounts, even her own, the senate's most productive and successful meeting of the year. They perhaps measure better than any others the futility most members seemed to feel by this time (February, 1973).

These feelings were no doubt catalyzed in part by the mocking vitality of the appeal made to the council during its February meeting by a particularly dynamic representative of the United Farmworkers Union. In the same letter, the student vice-head wrote that "Listening to Joe Smith

(of UFW) was the most worthwhile, interesting thing that's happened all year." And an administrator observer recalled that "The lettuce boycott spokesman put 'vim and vigor' in our meeting (for a change)."

In contrast to the apparent vitality of the farmworkers' movement, the senate movement at Mundelein had long since been given up by most participants and constituents because of its apparent lifelessness. Throughout its two-year history, the senate had been unable to shake the numerous problems apparently characteristic of the formative phase of senates in general. It had not been able to define its jurisdiction, establish its independence from old leadership, capture the imagination of its constituency through legislative or advisory successes, or devise an early strategy of overcoming mechanical and procedural problems. Instead, participants and especially designated leaders had allowed the senate to strand itself in a swamp of conceptual and procedural considerations.

Mundelein is an independent but Catholic church-influenced college for women located in Chicago. It is modern and high-powered enough to attract a relatively sophisticated faculty and student body and for administrators to recognize the attractions of "democratic governance" for these groups. (A strike by black students in 1970 reportedly changed a lot of administrative thinking.) But it is also traditional enough for top administrators and faculty to resist the spirit, if not the letter, of shared governance and for students to almost seem relieved that they do so.

Early in the term, the senate vice-head wrote, "Sister Ann Ida (Gannon, the college president) has only to give the word and we all know what to expect of a given proposal or idea." Reportedly, other top administrators, especially the current academic dean, are nearly as influential in meetings and deliberations. On the other hand, students and faculty are fully willing to trust thoughtful-sounding administrative judgements, and increasingly likely to be uninterested in the decision-making process. "I gained the impression that students, including student senators, are not greatly interested in sharing in the decision-making process or in policy-making. (A faculty member recently observed to me that students now--unlike the students who wanted this senate three years ago--no longer want shared power or responsibility. She may be right.)" This November report of a faculty observer could, if toned down just a little, apply as well to faculty as to students. The only difference is that faculty jealously guard their traditional prerogatives, while students have few, if any, to guard.

In what may be seen as an omen, the senate did not open until fall, 1971, almost a full year later than projected, due to delays in approving the proposed constitution. At that, the constitution just barely received the necessary student vote for ratification. This, again ominously, is attributed to student apathy. The senate replaced the old Faculty Senate.

Of the 35 members, 15 are elected faculty; 15 elected students; 3 elected administrators; and 2 non-voting ex officio members, the president and the vice president for academic affairs. Membership is for one year.

On paper, nine committees (five standing committees and four special committees) formally report to the senate for review of their recommendations and activities. The full senate is empowered to take up other business as it sees fit. Full senate meetings are scheduled for at least twice each quarter, as are committee meetings.

Just how this system works at Mundelein is illustrated by considering what could have been one of the senate's most important meetings. Alarmed by the lack of business brought before the senate and by declining levels of interest and commitment, senate leaders decided to devote the entire November meeting to the melodramatic question: "The Senate--To Be or Not To Be?"

The meeting time and proposed discussion topic were reportedly well publicized, but still only three committee heads attended the meeting, and several other members were absent as well.

There was no discussion of disbanding. The participant observers who later reported on the meeting considered this encouraging, but the failure of the meeting to generate any emotion or heat was considered disappointing. The tone of the meeting was described as incongruously reserved and formal, considering the subject matter. Three problems were discussed in what, from the minutes, appears to have been a rambling, frequently disjointed, and aimless discussion--the role of the senate, whether all campus committees should report to the senate or whether some should remain autonomous, and how to increase interest and participation in the senate.

A somewhat ambiguous and informal consensus was reached on each of these issues. The senators affirmed that the senate's function was, as stated in the constitution, "to formulate, review and modify college policy and programs," but not to administer them. There had evidently been a minor jurisdictional dispute between the president and the first senate over that senate's attempt to administer one unspecified program.

It was also agreed that the senate should try to improve communications with membership, and that each senate committee should establish its own ad hoc committee to increase membership. Committees formally attached to the senate were asked to furnish the senate with brief reports of their recent activities at each senate meeting. There was no sentiment to incorporate independent committees, at least until fundamental senate problems were solved.

Our data reveal few accomplishments of the committees or of the senate itself, and certainly no major change in the senate's role or effectiveness following the November encounter session. It is entirely possible, based on our sketchy data, to conclude that the senate is, and has always been, a partially ceremonial body with some communications functions.

The typical problem of constituencies not wanting to jeopardize powers that have already been won, sometimes through long and difficult maneuvers, is perhaps the major obstacle to a working senate at Mundelein. In the school paper last May, one faculty observer wrote, "Right now there doesn't seem to be a clear-cut faculty position on the issues which should

be dealt with. There is disagreement on what are faculty issues and which should be discussed with student senators; questions such as hiring and firing procedures, rank, tenure and promotion, and economic considerations such as the raising or lowering of tuition. It seems that some of the faculty wouldn't mind having issues like this brought to the senate, but I would guess that many others consider these strictly faculty issues."

He concludes: "It is this kind of ambivalence that brings about a hesitancy concerning the work of the senate. . . . Either we [should] have the type of community government that already exists on paper or we [should] return to separate governments of students and of faculty and abolish the senate." Although it is clear that this person did not speak for his faculty colleagues, our data do not reveal overwhelming faculty opposition to his views.

The senate may very well never achieve the central position its founders hoped for it. Some feel the newly selected academic dean will help it to do so. This would require a new aggressiveness in students and a radically new jurisdictional flexibility in faculty and administrators. Quite possibly it would also require a new constitution and more dynamic leadership in the senate. Nevertheless, it has performed a useful communication function, even though senate leadership may not recognize it.

IFI PROFILE OF STOCKTON STATE COLLEGE*

One notices almost immediately in the Stockton profile the low scores on both Democratic Governance (DG) and Institutional Esprit (IE). The esprit score is particularly interesting in that administrators and faculty share the view that esprit (which might also be called morale) is very low on the campus at the present time.

The Democratic Governance (DG) score is particularly low for students and faculty, while administrators see the democratic governance of the campus in a more favorable light. Ordinarily, when one finds large discrepancies between the administrators and the faculty on scales such as DG and IE, as well as on Self-Study and Planning (SP), it indicates that there is a communication problem on the campus of some magnitude and often a lack of agreement on the goals and objectives of the institution. In this campus, there seems to be strong agreement on the purpose of the institution, as indicated by the high concern for Undergraduate Learning (UL). This is clearly a student-centered idea of undergraduate learning, as exemplified in the items that make up the UL scale, but there is quite a bit of disagreement as to what sort of campus in terms of organization, leadership, and power would best fulfill the objectives of a student-centered program.

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*Based on 80 faculty responses, 37 student responses, and 44 administrator-staff responses.

There are several questions in the Democratic Governance scale that give some interesting clues as to where the problem is located. The first of these is 'In general, decision-making is decentralized whenever feasible or workable." On this question, 61% of the administrators strongly agree or agree, whereas only 42% of the faculty and 37% of the students agree. Fifty-six percent of the faculty disagree or disagree strongly with the statement, suggesting that there is a real disagreement on campus as to the decentralized nature of decision-making. (IFI data we gathered from the members of the Campus Council at Stockton basically support this disagreement. The Council members appear to be more typical of the campus than representatives of "fringe" elements.) Another interesting item from the Democratic Governance scale is "Power here tends to be widely dispersed rather than tightly held." Eighty-eight percent of the faculty disagree or strongly disagree with that statement, and 75% of the administrators disagree or strongly disagree; while 76% of the students disagree or strongly disagree. This suggests that the campus is in agreement that power is tightly held, probably by the administration. If there is this agreement and everyone saw the result as productive, there would be no necessary problem. But in this particular case, there is some basic anxiety concerning the amount of power and the lack of initiative that the faculty and students are albe to develop. (On the item "Governance of this institution is clearly in the hands of the administration," 87% of the faculty agree, 71% of the students agree, and 70% of the administrators agree. Quite clearly,

then, this faculty is not used to situations in which a strong administration runs things.)

As some other evidence for this communication problem, on the item in the Self-Study and Planning (SP) scale, "There is a long-range plan for the institution published for college-wide distribution," 45% of the faculty say yes, 38% of the faculty say no; while 67% of the administrators say yes. This suggests that there is such a plan, but that the faculty basically has not been informed of its existence and that the faculty has not been involved in its development.

The Concern for Innovation (CI) on the campus is one of the strong points of the institution's score. There seems to be widespread agreement that this campus is to be different in mission and conception, and it would seem that there is considerable possibility of developing something unusually creative on this campus.

One of the difficulties is seen in the Institutional Esprit (IE) scale, under the item "Most faculty consider the senior administrators to be able and well qualified." Thirty-five percent of the faculty agree or strongly agree with this statement, whereas 63% either disagree or strongly disagree. On the other hand, 63% of the administrators agree with the statement, and 35% disagree or strongly disagree. This suggests that there is a minority group within the administration that realizes that large numbers of the faculty do not consider the senior administrators to be able and well qualified. Indeed, it is possible that no "perfect" administrators could meet the standards of a group of faculty like this.

The potential for better morale and loyalty comes in the question "Although they may criticize some things, most faculty seem loyal to the college." On this item, 85% of the faculty agree, and 77% of the administrators agree. This suggests, then, that there is a widely held admission that the faculty do like the institution and that they want it to be better, but perhaps on their own terms rather than the terms laid down by the administration. Similarly, there is a strong return on a question regarding the existence of a sense of community on campus with feelings of shared purposes. Fifty-seven percent of the faculty agree with that statement, and 51% of the administrators agree. On the other hand, faculty morale is low, as agreed to by 80% of the faculty and 65% of the administrators.

The IFI profile for Stockton, then, reveals an exciting, dynamic institution which is in its stages of "growing pains." Clearly, some rapprochement will have to be reached between the various campus constituencies, particularly the faculty and the administration. Most students seem very uninterested in questions of campus decison-making and probably cannot force a reconciliation between faculty and administrators.

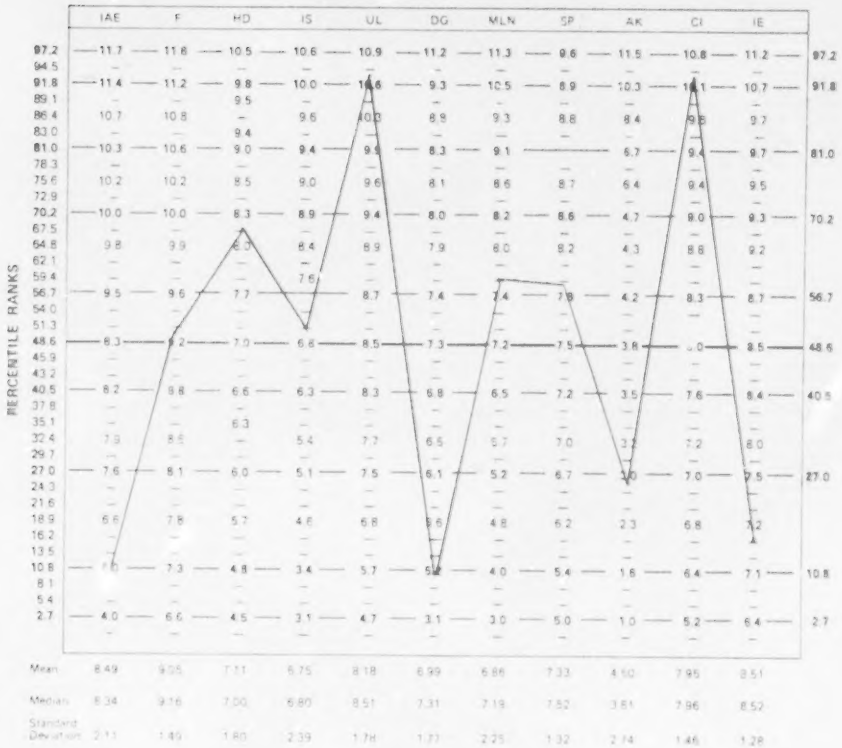
The IFI profile from Council members suggests that they are representative in points of view of the campus as a whole, but whether or not the entire faculty, the students, and the administration will come to recognize the Council as a legitimate and important device in campus affairs can not be concluded from the profile itself. Indeed, it looks as if many of the faculty might be quite interested in developing their own strong

organization, perhaps a faculty senate or a union. One would suspect, however, that several years from now the esprit scale will be higher at Stockton and either the democratic governance scale will be higher, or the institution will be in serious trouble.

STOCKTON STATE COLLEGE–TOTAL INSTITUTIONAL

INSTITUTIONAL FUNCTIONING INVENTORY

Distribution of Scale Means, with Percentile Equivalents
(based on faculty means at 37 comparison group institutions described in the *IFI Preliminary Technical Manual*)



	IAE	F	HD	IS	UL	DG	MLN	SP	AK	CI	IE
Mean	8.49	9.05	7.11	6.75	8.18	6.99	6.86	7.33	4.50	7.95	8.51
Median	8.34	9.16	7.00	6.80	8.51	7.31	7.19	7.52	3.81	7.96	8.52
Standard Deviation	2.11	1.49	1.80	2.39	1.78	1.77	2.25	1.32	2.74	1.46	1.28

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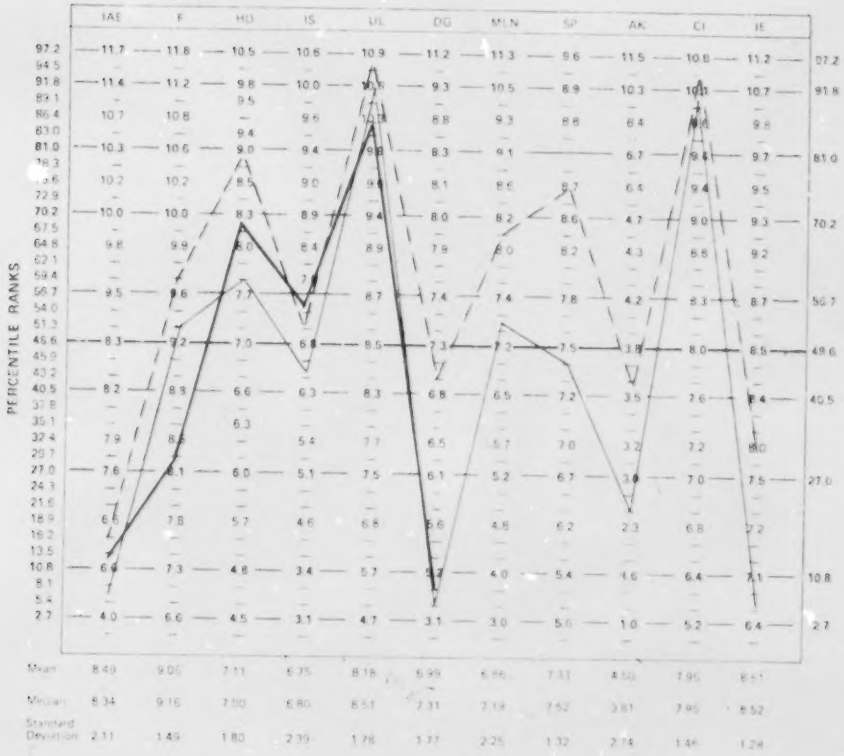
STOCKTON STATE COLLEGE–DISTRIBUTION BY SUBGROUPS
(Total institutional sample)

INSTITUTIONAL FUNCTIONING INVENTORY

Distribution of Scale Means, with Percentile Equivalents
(based on faculty means at 37 comparison group institutions described in the *IFI Preliminary Technical Manual*)


PERCENTILE RANKS
IAE F HD IS UL DG MLN SP AK CI IE
Mean 8.49 9.05 7.11 6.75 8.18 5.99 6.66 7.33 4.50 7.95 8.51
Median 8.34 9.16 7.00 6.80 8.51 7.31 7.19 7.52 3.81 7.95 8.52
Standard Deviation 2.11 1.49 1.80 2.39 1.78 1.37 2.25 1.32 2.74 1.49 1.28
Faculty
Students
Administrators (unclassified)

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STOCKTON STATE COLLEGE

At the height of last February's (1973) Student Union "strike" at Stockton, a faculty union leader wrote: "Both the newly-formed Stockton Federation of Teachers and the Student Union regard the College Council as a subtle administrative attempt to preclude their growth under the guise of giving everybody a direct say in policy decisions." It must be pointed out that what happened at Stockton was not what is normally considered a strike. Ten or fifteen students carried placards for several days, but there was no disruption of the institution's teaching or other functions. We begin with this point because it indicates the milieu, or ambiance, within which the council was working at the time. The council had actually been established over a year before, in a different context.

During the "strike," however, strike leaders had little reason to fear co-optation by the council. The "principal deliberative body for the internal affairs of the college," narrowly escaped voting to disband itself (spurred on by sympathetic student union supporters in the council) and continued to function, but mainly on the sidelines.

As one participant observer wrote in early March after the storm had abated somewhat from his point of view, "College Council is being

superseded in its functioning by several distinct groups. All but a few faculty members are now members of the American Federation of Teachers. Several hundred students are members of the Student Union. . . . Almost as many have joined the anti-militant Stockton Students Association. The College Council, on the other hand, has had difficulty reaching a quorum. . . . And, most interestingly, . . . has not involved itself in any way with the recent campus crisis." (Other data from the campus indicates that one respondent was overly optimistic in the numbers mentioned--a majority of faculty are AFT members but not almost all, while student membership in the union was well below 200. In fact, there were continuous disagreements among our respondents as to numbers and facts.)

A variety of causes apparently touched off the crisis at this new and small (1,750 students and 100 faculty) liberal arts college in New Jersey, founded by the state to encourage educational innovation and a "community learning experience and spirit." However, the decision of the president and board not to retain six faculty members was the most prominent cause of the strike.

Other incidents contributed to the atmosphere of distrust and division immediately preceding the strike. A list of demands of "the [primarily black] frustrated and suppressed students of Stockton College" (as one respondent put it) were rejected by the president in mid-January. The demands included the firing of a financial aids officer and a campus security guard, and extension of financial aid benefits. The students

in the Student Union were also irritated by the president's decision in November, 1972, to veto the College Council's proposal for allocation of student activity fees.

The College Council's inability to prevent the brewing conflicts from spilling out or to act after they did boil over might be partly attributed to the problem of representing very diverse constituencies, its own limited view of its function, and a perception some of its members shared with the strikers that the President should not veto council decisions.

The council was formed in October, 1971, over a year before the crisis began. Its founding was seen as an additional means of developing a community spirit in an innovative and creative educational setting. Most of Stockton's faculty possess the Ph.D. One gets the impression of a faculty not much lower in intellectual caliber than those at the best institutions in the country. Many of the faculty are also oriented towards non-traditional educational philosophies, and were attracted by the college's self-designed major options, flexible time schedules, non-traditional grading system, and interdisciplinary thrust. Others are more traditional in their outlook, which produces some faculty tensions.

Early in the first year of Stockton's existence, the original 55 faculty decided not to organize an autonomous faculty government, although the faculty did meet as a group. The College Council was to be the primary vehicle for deliberation and direction in all-college

policymaking. This strongly communitarian attitude permeated college life and may be reflected in the faculty's decision during the first year not to opt for a collective bargaining agent, as other faculty in the New Jersey college system had done. (It was only during the second year of the college's existence, prompted by the non-retention decisions, that unionism became a serious option for the Stockton faculty.)

Although Atlantic County is sparsely populated (accurate numbers were hard to find), some of the student body come from that county and 8.5% are black. The range, in ability and background, is great, causing many challenges for teachers from excellent but conventional graduate schools. Forty percent of the students are over 26 years old, and the state is reportedly expressing a growing interest in improving occupational and career programs for them. Other data suggests that the students are decidedly upwardly mobile. According to one faculty survey, for example, four out of five students were considering post-graduate or professional work. No student government aside from the College Council exists; however, a student union, relatively unsupported by the majority of students, was emerging.

The Council until recently was composed of twelve students, ten faculty, and eight staff. A new proposal for Council membership was just passed. The president was, and continues to be, excluded from membership under the Council's by-laws. While representation was relatively evenly distributed, the process by which representatives were selected was highly unorthodox, in terms of our questionnaire data.

Representatives were selected by lottery from the large number of volunteer candidates turning in petitions carrying the names of ten supporters. It was felt the procedure insured that everyone interested had an equal chance to serve, but during the strike it was denounced by faculty union members and student leaders of the strike and was apparently a factor in the Council's problem with legitimacy. A faculty union organizer said the procedure prevented "real faculty and student leaders from stepping forward." Another faculty member and a Council representative said the present system made it too easy to be chosen and allowed "the possibility for uninterested and, perhaps, less than competent people to find themselves sitting on the College Council." A contrary point of view held that this particular representation style prevented a situation where the Council would be composed of a multiplicity of self-interest groups, each claiming to be the legitimate spokesmen for the students, faculty, and staff members. The pattern is being modified in fall, 1973, to allow a large Council membership and a combination of lottery and elected positions.

In addition, several faculty objected to the broad-based representation and inclusion of clerical and other nonacademic staff on a council which would deliberate academic/educational policy.

For a body which was conceived as a potentially influential force, our respondent Council members increasingly tended to see the Council's role as quite limited, and they were reluctant to test Council powers. The Council is organized into three standing committees--Instruction,

Co-Curriculum, and Administration. The standing committees are empowered to organize task forces, consisting of both council members and non-council members, for the purpose of investigating specific issues or performing specific tasks. The Council as a whole is obliged to meet at least once each month, at which time it hears and takes action on the reports of the standing committees and task forces and considers other issues brought before it.

During the 1972-73 academic year up to and through the crisis period, the Council tended to deal mainly with relatively short uncontroversial tasks and peripheral issues. For example, they chose a school nickname, consulted on improving the sports and recreation program, planned graduation ceremonies, helped the school newspaper move towards independence, and administered various contracts with outside agencies. It took up only three really controversial issues--grading policy, the hiring of a vice president, and allocation of the student activities budget--and it steered clear of many more difficult policy areas which the president had recommended that it consider early in the year (for example, the issue of tenure and rehiring policy). To this extent, relationships with the president have never been determined in areas in which he has asked them to delineate policy.

The Council's problems of speaking for diverse constituents may have been one cause of its circumspection, or this may have been caused by a natural desire for immediate acceptance by "being a winner," which led to the passage of noncontroversial issues at the expense of controversial

but more significant ones. In addition, President Bjork's administrative style may have been another factor that contributed to the Council's cautious behavior.

Stockton's president, Dr. Richard E. Bjork (political science), is a former vice-chancellor of the New Jersey Department of Higher Education, and is said by some to rule Stockton with a heavy hand. From his statements and from interviews, one gets the immediate impression that he sees his role as that of a "broker" between external constituencies and authorities, and internal groups. In addition, he sees the chief executive as an educational leader, provocateur, but most importantly, an educational manager. (Stockton is one of a small number of institutions working in the area of management systems under support from the Exxon Foundation.)

President Bjork seems to be a careful administrator, deliberate and cool in his actions. His relationship with the Council seems to be direct and unevasive. Demands from aggrieved groups are met with considered, clear statements of fact and intention, albeit with some controversy and disagreement.

Although the handbook on governance presents a clear picture, our respondents indicated that decision-making channels were unclear at Stockton. The responsibilities of the faculty, students, and administration, as well as the College Council, were felt to be undefined and ambiguous. It may be that some did not want to accept the handbook's statements. This uncertainty, coupled with the major problems developing

in retention and tenure policy, left the institution with few procedural precedents for deliberating conflict. Yet, things did get done even with this uncertainty.

Earlier in the year, Bjork had sent back some of the demands of the "frustrated and suppressed students" (only a small fraction of the students were ever involved) and had revised the proposed student activity fees allocation of the College Council. At that time, in late November of 1972, he wrote to the president of the Council indicating the difficulties of maintaining executive leadership in participatory governance: "It probably is unrealistic to expect that anyone's recommendations, including even the careful ones of the College Council, will always be accepted as stated. . . . I would only hope that the College Council will understand that when I change its recommendations, I do not do it capriciously but only with reason. I have always welcomed the opportunity to share my reasons with members of the Executive Board [of the Council], with the Co-Curriculum Committee, and with you. Even when we disagree I would like to believe that we can respect both our differing reasons and conclusions."

During the crisis the always-fragile authority which the Council represented disintegrated internally at the same time as it was being challenged by the president to develop new responsibilities. Some members of the Council evidently felt that it had been compromised in the eyes of its constituencies by its failure to initiate bold responses to what were seen by some as provocative presidential actions, and by

its consequent appearance to more radical forces of accommodating and rubber-stamping Bjork's decisions.

"Student attendance is not what it should be," reported a participant observer in late January, 1973. ". . . [One] possible reason is the increasing disillusionment of many council members with the seeming paucity of important issues given to the council for consideration. . . . The general atmosphere is quickly becoming one of futility, through disappointment over the lack of effective responsibility." Though the vote to disband failed to gain the constitutionally necessary two-thirds majority, the Council seemed to be increasingly unsure of its proper role.

The "strike" and the feelings of hostility died down with the issues originally provoking it remaining little changed. One of the six faculty was rehired, and the College Council was neither abolished nor voluntarily disbanded. However, the general dissatisfaction with the Council sparked a reform movement led by a faculty council-member to restructure it along more representative lines.

Under this plan, which was recently approved, Council membership will be boosted from 30 to 40 (an increase of eight students and two staff, with no change in numerical representation of the faculty). Five faculty and ten of the student representatives will be elected by their constituencies. The remaining members will be chosen by lot from those petitioning in order to give those "who are interested in Council but not in running for election a chance to be selected." The

number of petition signatures required for candidacy will be raised to 25. The plan also requires the Council to meet twice, rather than once, a month. The Council will also be further opened to extra-council and community input.

While these changes will certainly make the Council a more representative, and conceivably even a more influential body, even the proposal's staunchest supporters feel their success is contingent on a change they cannot directly influence. "If the Council is ever to achieve the lofty responsibilities stated for it in our handbook," said one faculty council-member last February, "the groups that have traditionally made all the decisions in a college must be ready to forego some of their 'power'." He might have added that future Councils may also have to decide to exercise their delegated powers to the fullest.

Perhaps because some people care so deeply about the college, communication and trust are seemingly difficult problems for this campus. The notion of community, and cooperative action between faculty and administration, has broken down, especially between the first-year faculty and the president. The situations described above can be seen more as a battle over the distribution of roles, responsibilities, and power at Stockton than as a confrontation over any particular issue. Stockton is a young, dynamic institution suffering from inevitable growing pains. Many of these are faced in the Council, but with very little spirit of mutual understanding and trust. Perhaps these qualities emerge with age and experience. Certainly, given the energy and intelligence of its

members, the Council could become a central and cohesive element of a new and vital campus. The new plan for representation, plus more desire to work together, could bring this about.

IFI PROFILE FOR SANGAMON STATE UNIVERSITY*

Perhaps the most striking thing about the Sangamon State profile is the very low rating the faculty give on Democratic Governance (DG). Both the students and the administrators are much higher on this scale than the faculty. This suggest some possible disillusionment with the administration and an inability of the administrators to induce the faculty to become significantly involved. Further support for this notion comes from the Self-Study and Planning scale (SP), as the administrators' score is quite a bit higher than the faculty score, indicating again that the administration has not been able to convey to the faculty the real urgency regarding the planning process.

On Concern for Innovation (CI) and Institutional Esprit (IE), the faculty are again significantly below the administrators' scores on these variables. All of this suggests an institution which could be characterized by a somewhat over-optimistic administration and an unconvinced faculty. (Our data from members of the Sangamon State campus council indicate that the council is very close on all of the IFI scales to the report for Sangamon State as a whole. This suggests once again that the campus council

*Based on responses from 63 faculty members, 68 students, and 38 administrators.

does not usually consist of the "lunatic fringe" groups but tends rather to be a group selected from the middle range of attitudes and opinions.)

It is not clear why, but all of our case study institutions are characterized by very low profiles on the first scale, Intellectual-Aesthetic Extracurriculum (IAE). On the first scale, it is interesting that large numbers of students and faculty answered "Do not know" to a number of the items. For example, 45% of the students don't know whether one chamber music concert has been given within the past year, and 32% of the faculty don't know. On the question of whether a poetry reading open to the campus has been given within the past year, 49% of the students indicated that they do not know. It isn't clear from this whether the faculty simply don't spend much time on campus or some other reason, but there seems to be a fairly clear consensus (even including some administrators) that nobody knows what sort of extracurricular programs do exist, dealing with the arts in general. This attitude is fairly typical of the stereotype about commuter colleges, and perhaps that stereotype is accurate here. It is highly unlikely, however, in that Sangamon State, as a new institution, is supposed to be characterized by considerable amounts of contact between students, faculty, and administrators.

On Human Diversity (HD), there is a fair degree of consensus among the students that efforts are made to admit some disadvantaged students who do not meet normal requirements. Fifty-two percent of the students feel that way (43% don't know), and 71% of the faculty, along with 60% of the administrators. It appears that the faculty is relatively radical on

concern for the Improvement of Society (IS). On the item, "Most faculty tend to be reasonably satisfied with the status quo of U.S. society," 79% of the students disagree; 82% of the faculty disagree; and 77% of the administrators disagree. This suggests a faculty that is interested in developing alternative patterns of organization compared to those of American society generally.

It is also clear that new faculty are hired significantly because of their teaching ability. Eighty-two percent of the students say they are; 92% of the faculty; and 97% of the administrators. This is quite clearly a teaching-oriented institution, at least in terms of faculty selection.

However, on the Democratic Governance (DG) scale, we begin to see some other parameters of the institution. On the item, "Decision-making is decentralized whenever feasible or workable," 66% of the faculty disagree, while 40% of the students disagree, and 31% of the administrators disagree. The faculty feel that power on the campus is tightly held--at least 81% of them agree with that statement, while 71% of the students agree, and 57% of the administrators agree. Another question on this scale is: Who is in this group that holds the reins? The faculty quite clearly think it is the administration. On the item, "Governance of this institution is clearly in the hands of the administration," 83% of the faculty agree or strongly agree, while only 49% of the students agree or strongly agree, and 42% of the administrators. A large group of students and administrators feel that the power group is made up mainly of faculty

members; thus it is an interesting situation in which there is general agreement that a small coterie run the institution, but a widespread disagreement on the composition of this small group.

At any rate, it is clear that the notion of shared authority as a description of the system of governance is not widely held. Eighty-one percent of the faculty disagree with that notion, 48% of the students and 45% of the administrators disagree. One reason for any governance problems on this campus has to do with the difficulty in agreeing on where the power currently lies. Again, an item that helps to explain the situation is the Institutional Esprit (IE) item, "Most faculty consider the senior administrators to be able and well qualified." Eighty-one percent of the faculty disagree with that statement; but on the other hand, 54% of the administrators disagree with it also. In other words, the administration has a fairly realistic view of what the faculty think of them. However, their own view of themselves differs significantly from that of the faculty. On the item, "Top-level administrators here provide effective educational leadership," 21% of the faculty agree, and 47% of the faculty disagree, whereas 68% of the administrators agree and 31% disagree. Thus, the administrators know that the faculty don't think of them as being competent, but nevertheless fell their team is doing a fairly good job.

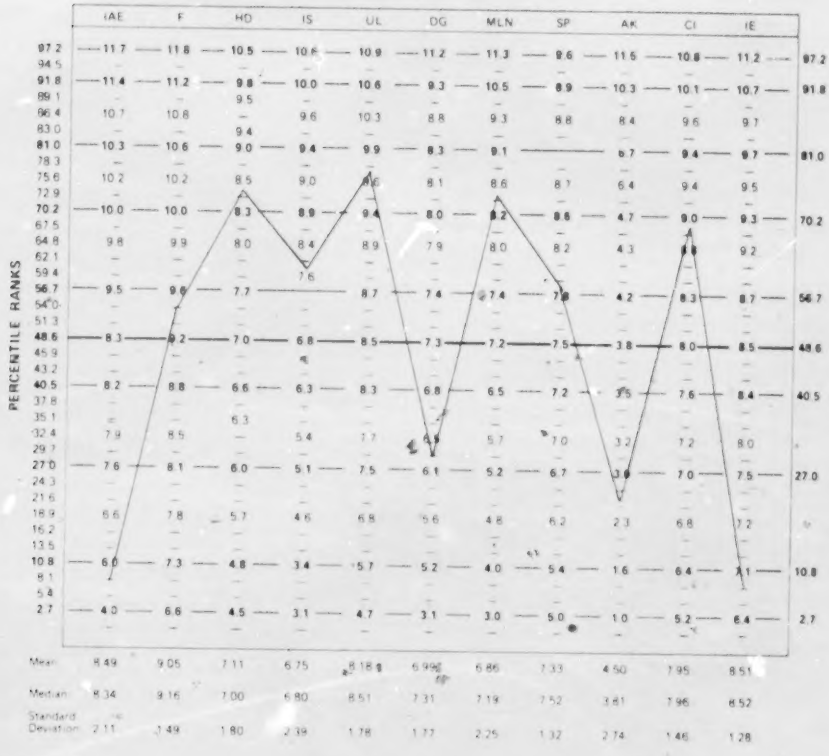
Based on these responses, one would expect that communication between faculty and administration is rather poor, and 81% of the faculty and 48% of the administrators agree that it is poor. This suggests that

a campus senate would have particular difficulties here, with an administration which is hard pressed to bridge the gap to the faculty and to encourage faculty participation in a direct and open way in campus senate matters. Although the evidence regarding a strong sense of community is fairly negative, there is some ground for optimism in the relatively high agreement with the statement that most faculty seem loyal to the college, although they criticize some things. Seventy-one percent of the faculty agree with that statement, and 74% of the administrators agree.

Both item analysis as well as the scale analysis suggest that the administration has its work cut out for it in trying to bridge the gaps, particularly with the faculty. (Students on this campus appear to be rather an agreeable sort who are not particularly out for blood, nor do they seem equipped with a high level of political sophistication.) But the difficult conflict between the faculty and the administrators could well signal major difficulties for the campus council at Sangamon. Unless communication between the groups improves, some severe difficulties may be anticipated in operating the council.

SANGAMON STATE UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTIONAL SCORE
INSTITUTIONAL FUNCTIONING INVENTORY

Distribution of Scale Means, with Percentile Equivalents
(based on faculty means at 37 comparison group institutions described in the *IFI Preliminary Technical Manual*)



	AE	F	HD	IS	UL	DG	MLN	SP	AK	CI	IE
Mean	8.49	9.05	7.11	6.75	8.18	6.99	6.86	7.33	4.50	7.95	8.51
Median	8.34	9.16	7.00	6.80	8.51	7.31	7.19	7.52	3.81	7.96	8.52
Standard Deviation	2.11	2.49	1.80	2.39	1.78	1.77	2.25	1.32	2.74	1.46	1.28

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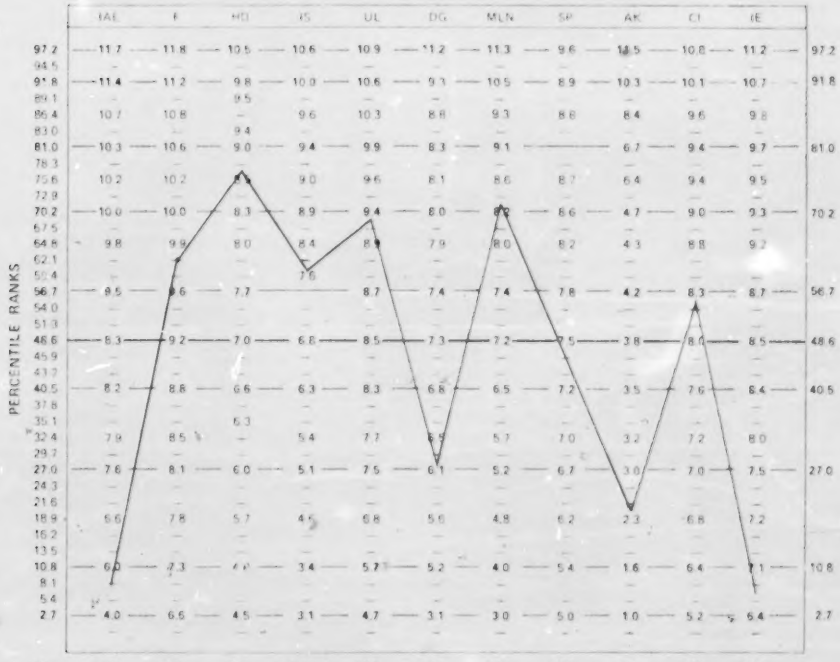
SANGAMON STATE UNIVERSITY–COUNCIL

INSTITUTIONAL FUNCTIONING INVENTORY

Distribution of Scale Means, with Percentile Equivalents
(based on faculty means at 37 comparison group institutions described in the *IFI Preliminary Technical Manual*)



	AE	F	HO	IS	UL	DG	MLN	SP	AK	CI	IE
97.2	11.7	11.8	10.5	10.6	10.9	11.2	11.3	9.6	14.5	10.8	11.2
94.5											
91.8	11.4	11.2	9.8	10.0	10.6	9.3	10.5	8.9	10.3	10.1	10.7
89.1			9.5								
86.4	10.7	10.8		9.6	10.3	8.8	9.3	8.8	8.4	9.6	9.8
83.0			9.4								
81.0	10.3	10.6	9.0	9.4	9.9	8.3	9.1		6.7	9.4	9.7
78.3											
75.6	10.2	10.2		9.0	9.6	8.1	8.6	8.7	6.4	9.4	9.5
72.9											
70.2	10.0	10.0	8.3	8.9	9.4	8.0		8.6	4.7	9.0	9.3
67.5											
64.8	9.8	9.8	8.0	8.4	8.9	7.9	8.0	8.2	4.3	8.8	9.2
62.1											
59.4				7.6							
56.7	9.5	9.6	7.7		8.7	7.4	7.4	7.8	4.2	8.3	8.7
54.0											
51.3											
48.6	8.3	9.2	7.0	6.8	8.5	7.3	7.2	7.5	3.8	8.0	8.5
45.9											
43.2											
40.5	8.2	8.8	6.6	6.3	8.3	6.8	6.5	7.2	3.5	7.6	8.4
37.8											
35.1			6.3								
32.4	7.9	8.5		5.4	7.7	6.5	5.7	7.0	3.2	7.2	8.0
29.7											
27.0	7.6	8.1	6.0	5.1	7.5	6.1	5.2	6.7	3.0	7.0	7.5
24.3											
21.6											
18.9	6.6	7.8	5.7	4.5	6.8	5.6	4.8	6.2	2.3	6.8	7.2
16.2											
13.5											
10.8	6.0	7.3	4.9	3.4	5.7	5.2	4.0	5.4	1.6	6.4	7.1
8.1											
5.4											
2.7	4.0	6.5	4.5	3.1	4.7	3.1	3.0	5.0	1.0	5.2	6.4
Mean	8.49	9.05	7.11	6.75	8.18	6.99	6.86	7.33	4.50	7.95	8.51
Median	8.34	9.16	7.00	6.80	8.51	7.31	7.19	7.52	3.81	7.96	8.52
Standard Deviation	2.31	1.43	1.80	2.39	1.78	1.77	2.25	1.32	2.74	1.46	1.28

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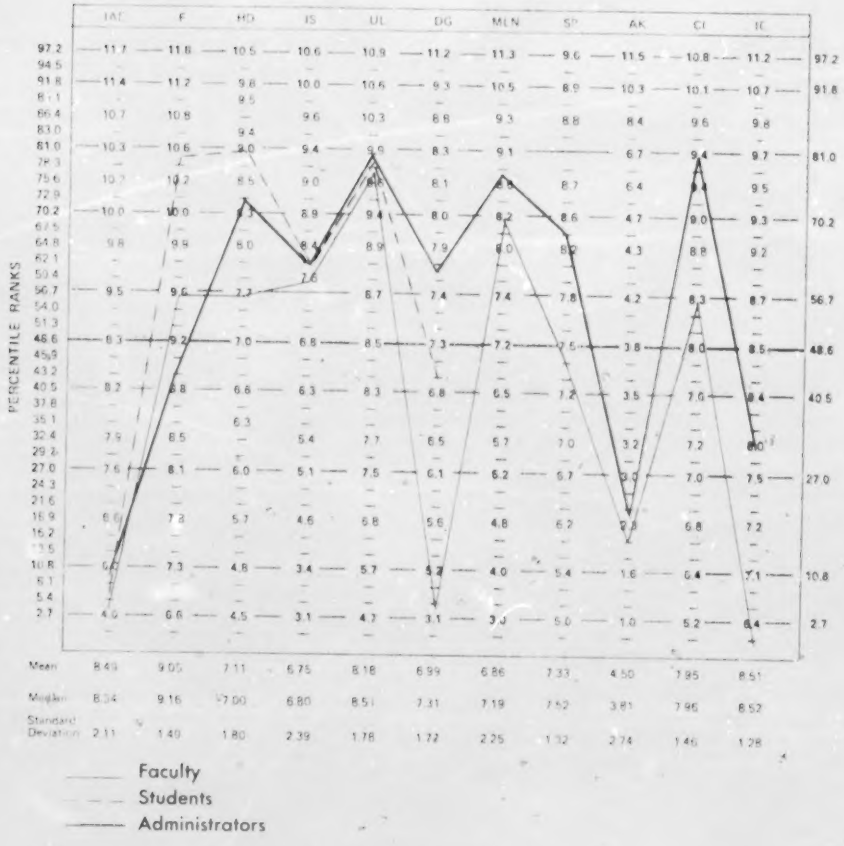
SANGAMON STATE UNIVERSITY

INSTITUTIONAL FUNCTIONING INVENTORY

Distribution of Scale Means, with Percentile Equivalents
(based on faculty means at 37 comparison group institutions described in the *IFI Preliminary Technical Manual*)



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SANGAMON STATE

Significant and widespread participation in the internal governance at the "public affairs university of Illinois" has waned noticeably over the last year. Many of those who have been involved in the University Assembly, once considered by many to be a center of decision-making on campus, feel that power has been usurped from them. However, the top-ranking administrators to whom they say the power has shifted argue that a shared governance concept was too "utopian" for Sangamon and that Assembly representatives have not had the administrative competency or experience to give major policy issues the attention they deserve. The shift in power, which they acknowledge has been a necessary rescue operation, they say, not an act of expropriation.

"The crushing nature of [our] major concerns, that is, growth with quality, recruitment and retention of faculty, inauguration of new programs, the establishment of routines of doing business, and the attempt to honorably satisfy a public constituency, poses difficulties for governance," said a top administrator last January. "If the governance system does not provide a system acceptable to the President, the various pressures which he faces dictate that he just act independently. Obviously,

this causes a considerable amount of tension throughout the community. . . . Nevertheless, it is typical of the various problems which have faced us from the beginning."

The beginning for this small (2000 students, 100 faculty), two-campus (one in downtown Springfield and one in the rural outskirts) institution was not long ago. But since its opening in fall of 1970, Sangamon has struggled to define its role within the Illinois state university system and to maintain its original commitment to an innovative, liberal-arts approach to public affairs education.

There has been increasing pressure on the Sangamon staff to develop technical programs to supplement their solidly liberal arts core program. The Board of Regents tend to view Sangamon as a "training grounds for middle management people in government," while the staff thinks of public affairs in a less technical way, "within the framework of a liberal arts curriculum stressing practical experience and innovative teaching."

Consequently, the staff, and particularly President Robert Spencer, has tried to resist this pressure. Spencer said he doubts that "you can plan a university around a manpower study." But lately Spencer seems to have at least partially resigned himself to the view of the regents to whom he reports. The problem, as he recently redefined it, is how to be "literate and humane and committed to scholarship while adding technical courses to the liberal arts curriculum."

In any case, most of the innovative programs which made the North Central accreditation agency call Sangamon "a breath of fresh air in academe," are likely to continue. Notable for its limitation to only

upper-division students and M.A. candidates, Sangamon offers four interdisciplinary majors, as well as an independent study option, in addition to its more traditional social sciences, natural sciences, and humanities programs. It also requires all degree candidates to participate in public affairs colloquia (intensive study of a contemporary social issue) and an "applied studies quarter" of extra-institutional work-study.

The University Assembly, before it became a problem for the administration, was once considered another important component of the overall innovative and public affairs orientation of the institution. The Assembly has 60 members--18 elected faculty, 18 elected students, 9 elected staff, 9 "public members" appointed by the president with Assembly consent (the by-laws specify that groups otherwise unrepresented or underrepresented will be given first consideration), and 5 ex-officio members from the administration--each of whom is expected to serve a one-year term. The president is an ex-officio member who cannot vote but who enjoys all other privileges of membership. In practice, the president has filled the "public member" seats with Springfield residents, usually people on the outside, or on the margins of, higher education.

On paper, the Assembly is an elegantly constructed and delicately balanced body, closely resembling the United State Congress. Three Assembly councils are empowered with jurisdiction over academic affairs (composed with a constitutionally guaranteed plurality of faculty members), university services (with a plurality of staff), and campus and community affairs (with a plurality of students and the power to allocate the student activity fee).

Council actions are subject to review by the Assembly and all policy recommendations must be placed on the calendar of the Assembly. The Assembly has the power to appeal presidential vetoes of policy recommendations to the Board of Regents. Although students can receive degree credit for participation in the Assembly, few sign up for the tutorial which enables them to do so. Faculty do not get released time for their participation.

The technical beauty of the structure has not been enough to guarantee its success. Appropriately at the heart of the Assembly's recent history is the classic political problem of establishment of authority within a context of competing values. Although always limited to a recommending, rather than legislative, function, the Assembly enjoyed the support and cooperation of the president, who endorsed the idea of shared governance with few qualifications, until its second year of operation. Until that time, the president was reluctant to veto Assembly recommendations and was most conciliatory to the Assembly, although always continuing to meet and consult with his official cabinet, composed of administrative line officers.

Issues which arose early during the second Assembly session in 1972, but which have not been reported by our respondents in detail, evidently caused the president to reconsider his relationship with the Assembly. By April of 1972, President Spencer was complaining publicly that he was being asked by the Regents to be responsible for decisions over which he did not have effective control.

Also during April of 1972, a major governance document, the "Shuman Report," prepared for the Board of Regents was first released. It suggested changing the language of the Board's governing policy from the original, which gave the faculty responsibility, to language which focused responsibility on the president for final decisions, altnough the faculty were still held responsible for curricular matters. The report specified that faculty should be "consulted," and its specifications for students included student participation on each campus and some form of student evaluation of faculty.

The passing of the proposal signalled the end of the short era of the reasonably powerful Assembly. The Regents reportedly made the change to clarify lines of accountability. "The conflict is between a 'single manager model' of authority and the 'shared responsiblity model' which the Board thinks allows 'bureaucratic buck-passing,'" said one Sangamon faculty member when the report was released. Another faculty member added, "The Board . . . is quite conservative and believes that universities ought to be held to the same standards of economy, efficiency, and hierarchy as private business."

The decision-making role of the Assembly remained unclarified for nearly an entire year. Throughout the 1972-73 school year, a number of key issues periodically aroused what was still considered a debate over authority. The issue, it could be argued, had already been settled in effect by the Shuman resolution, especially given the growing desire of the Sangamon administrative staff to move away from their delicate role in mediating Regent and Assembly values.

In June of 1972 the president decided, without faculty or Assembly consultation, to extend conditional terminal contracts to eight assistant professors hired in 1970 who had not completed their Ph.D. dissertations. The contracts provieded for renewal subject to demonstration of satisfactory progress toward completion. When the new school year began, the Assembly voted to ask the Board to reconsider the decision and to instruct the president to consult with faculty in the future. The Board responded by criticizing the Assembly for bringing an internal matter of this kind to a higher authority. During these deliberations, the president argued that the "competency base" of the Assembly was not sufficient to allow it to make responsible decisions in this area.

Although the Assembly pursued the issue of tenure policy, and many other matters as well, during the next six months, a faculty participant observer reported in November 1972 a "lame duck" atmosphere due to a "lack of presidential clarification of the Assembly's role" in the wake of the regents' decision. Another action which may have contributed to the feelings of ambiguity was the president's decision, by what one faculty observer called "administrative fiat," to initiate a new course numbering system, which was orginally rejected by the Assembly.

A new flurry of conflicts broke out in February 1973. A group of dissident students and a small number of faculty members appeared at a Regents meeting to oppose an Assembly-and-Regent-supported decision to change the calendar at Sangamon from the quarter to the semester system. In a reportedly heated contest before the Regents, the student and faculty

spokesmen charged that the change would reduce their course options and would create space problems, while administrators responded that such a change was a "financial necessity" and an educational obligation, in that some students were getting many course credits with very few contact hours with faculty.

At nearly the same time, an academic planning evaluator's explosive report on faculty-administration relations was released. The report revealed serious communications problems between the two groups and much resentment of the administration by the faculty. Eighty-eight percent of the large number of faculty respondents disagreed with the statement that "most faculty consider the senior administration on campus to be able and well qualified for their positions." Sixty-eight percent of the faculty said that decision-making was not decentralized. Administrators had a higher opinion of themselves and the faculty, and tended to believe they were highly regarded by the faculty. Students tended to share faculty views of the administration, though they were not quite as strong or solid in their views. They wholly disagreed with the faculty on only one issue; only 36% said that decision-making was not decentralized. First efforts at faculty unionizing followed on the heels of this report.

Although these events would suggest the probability of further deterioration of relations at Sangamon, later reports from the institution were in fact more optimistic about both relations between groups and the future of the Assembly.

In early May our faculty participant observer reported that "The future of the governance system seems brighter at this writing than the

last. The president has not given up on the idea of a participatory governance mechanism, but he wants the participation to be what he calls 'competency based' and limited to an advising capacity, albeit a serious and high-level one. The faculty union has not made the sort of inroads . . . [into faculty participation in the Assembly] that I originally suspected it would have made. So far, the union has taken no strong public stands on any of the issues of major importance to the University."

Though its conflicts with external authorities and authority structures were of over-riding importance, the Assembly also experienced a number of internal problems, some related to the larger issues, during 1972 and 1973. During the "crisis" of late 1972 and the early months of 1973, faculty interest in the Assembly waned. One observer said the small number of faculty running in the third Assembly election reflected the faculty's low level of interest in the Assembly. But recently faculty interest has increased. From the minutes, students rarely seem to play a prominent role, and student attendance is often low. Two observations of a faculty participant support this conclusion about the Assembly power structure. He reported during the spring of 1973 that the elected speaker of the Assembly, an influential faculty member, had been seriously ill for six weeks, and that most of the work of the senate had fallen on the deputy speaker, a student "who is not up to the responsibility." "Consequently," he said, "the Assembly meetings seem to limp along, not getting much involved in fundamental controversies."

He also noted that "more and more of the important decisions are being made at the sub-assembly level, particularly the academic affairs

council." This committee, which is dominated by the faculty, he said, had been particularly effective in working on policy guidelines for faculty appointment, tenure, promotion, and salaries. Faculty influence on these matters at the Assembly and sub-Assembly level may explain the union's relative inactivity.

Although faculty issues have recently dominated Assembly discussion, student issues have not been ignored, and, indeed, appeared to have been the most frequently considered in the past. Aside from the tenure proposal, student housing and plans for financing bus service between the two campuses were said to be the major issues considered in the fall of 1972.

A cursory examination of the minutes reveals that the large majority of issues considered and proposals made by the Assembly are relatively minor in terms of impact. These included, for example, recommendations to sponsor a poetry reading, to purchase a juke box, to allow upper-division credit towards graduation for selected lower-division courses, to allocate small amounts of funds to new campus and community organizations, to change supervision of "applied studies quarters," and to appoint a program review task force to make recommendations on 15 newly proposed degree programs and to re-examine the curriculum of existing programs. The administration continued to make decisions on grants and contracts, affirmative action, to manage the budget (except for the activities fees), to investigate health services, and to establish and reorganize the academic program committees.

After the Regents passed the Shuman resolution mentioned earlier, the Assembly appears to have floundered, almost silently, in an identity crisis over interpretation of the resolution. Although there is no direct support in the data, the erratic actions of the Assembly in late 1972 and in 1973, alternately aggressive and reticent, suggest that it was both reluctant to force clarification of the resolution and, at the same time, reluctant to sanction administrative encroachments into areas in which it felt that it should continue to share responsibility. The Assembly members' lack of experience at "playing politics" also no doubt contributed to the Assembly's inconsistency during this period.

The equilibrium which has been reached since that time may provide the framework for a lasting and workable role for the Assembly as a high-level group of presidential assistants and advisors. But at least three potential problems could easily upset that balance. The president's definition of "competency" has not yet been clarified, although it seems to be very loosely defined in the present implicit "gentlemen's agreement" between him and the Assembly. "Gentlemen's agreements" have been revised before at Sangamon, however, and the president's professed expectations for what he considers competent advice do not appear to be strictly rhetorical. The Assembly would also be threatened by a strengthening of the faculty union, a development which could occur at any time.

The Regents, too, could re-enter the situation with resolutions strictly limiting the role of the Assembly in internal governance. It is certainly true that the Regents have been the most important influence

over the recent history of the Assembly. Their decisions at least determined the eventual reduction in scope of Assembly powers and their reluctance to clarify ambiguities in those decisions certainly helped create the many conflicts which characterized the past year at Sangamon. Those conflicts can be interpreted as expressions of frustration with those ambiguities, as well as expressions of resistance to the new, reduced role expectations. On the other hand, the fact that the institution is adding a number of new (mostly young) faculty members every year, may provide new sources of energy and interest in the Assembly.

IFI PROFILE FOR CALIFORNIA SCHOOL OF PROFESSIONAL PSYCHOLOGY*

This profile indicates a rather outstanding pattern on various scales. (Most of our data on this particular IFI came from students at the California School of Professional Psychology; with relatively few faculty and staff scores because of the very small size of these groups at the school.) One gets the impression that this is an institution that knows pretty much what it is about. The high scores on Freedom (F), Human Diversity (HD), and Undergraduate Learning (UL), as well as the particularly high score on Democratic Governance (DG), all speak for a concern for people and some kind of mutual toleration of each other which gives ample promise of a successful campus-wide senate. The high score on Self-Study and Planning (SP) suggests that the institution is able to pull itself together and design future plans for itself which are then implemented in a relatively consistent way. The very high scores on both Concern for Innovation (CI) and Institutional Esprit (IE) suggest again that this is a campus in which people enjoy each other and is also one in which there is a considerable amount of institutional loyalty on the part of the students. (Those faculty and administrator scores we have indicate consistence with the student point of view.)

*Data from 41 students, 5 faculty members, and 2 administrators.

The IFI suggests that the institution has no commitment to Meeting Local Needs (MLN), and also that the Advancement of Knowledge (AK) is clearly not on the agenda. It is certainly clear from our IFI data that students are heavily involved in decision-making on campus. On all of the Democratic Governance (DG) items, there is a clear indication that students feel that they are heavily involved. For example, 88% of the students agree with the comment, "In general, decision-making is decentralized whenever feasible or workable." This is an unusually high score for a student body. It is also clear that they are involved from the item which says, "Serious consideration is given to student opinion on decisions affecting students," to which 76% of the students agreed. It is clear, then, that faculty, students, and administrators participate jointly in the decision-making process on the campus--an ideal situation as far as campus senates are concerned.

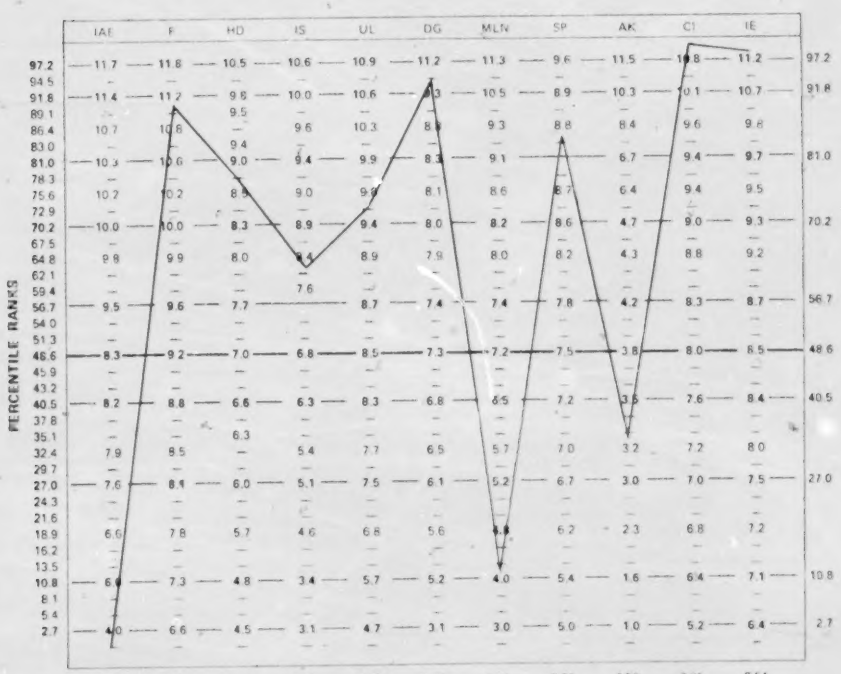
Compared to other institutional scores, this institution is unusual in the small number of students who answer "Don't know" on many of the specific questions regarding the college's operations. This, then, would lead one to believe that the students know pretty much what is going on and are involved. (Some of the exceptions are the questions involving faculty participation in framing national legislation. About 50% of the students indicate that they don't know whether the faculty play these roles or not, which is fairly typical of other students on other campuses.)

There is some evidence of a coherence of mission which enables constituencies to work together. This probably means a limitation in the amount of student diversity present. It is clear that a student would not be at CSPP unless he planned to become a professional psychologist. Thus, the large amount of self-selection probably does produce a greater dedication to the institution and a greater coherence of purpose. Of the various case study institutions we have examined, this IFI profile seems to be the one that best supports the possibility of a strong and vigorous campus senate, one able to take a responsible and important role in campus decision-making.

CALIFORNIA SCHOOL OF PROFESSIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

INSTITUTIONAL FUNCTIONING INVENTORY

Distribution of Scale Means, with Percentile Equivalents
(based on faculty means at 37 comparison group institutions described in the *IFI Preliminary Technical Manual*)



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Standard Deviation	2.11	1.49	1.80	2.39	1.78	1.72	2.25	1.32	2.74	1.46	1.28

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CALIFORNIA SCHOOL FOR PROFESSIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

Few schools could be as ideally suited to the senate idea. California School for Professional Psychology is at once small (only 150 students, 21 part-time faculty, and between 40 and 50 contract instructors), relatively homogeneous, youthfully enthusiastic, and organized around a professional degree curriculum which encourages qualities of patience, empathy, shared experience, appreciation of group processes, and enlightened participation.

All of these work to the advantage of the senate. Senators represent a small number and a sense of community is strong. Confident of their roles and comfortable with each other, senators are generally open and aggressive in their advocacy. The senate is both the major policy-making and the major adjudicating body on campus. It is composed of six elected faculty, six elected students, four ex officio administrators (including the campus dean), and one elected but non-voting staff representative. The Campus Executive Committee, as it is formally known, meets every two weeks. The five subcommittees, which cover the major policy-making areas for which the CEC is responsible, determine their own meeting schedules. The CEC acts on the recommendations of the subcommittees, as well as on matters of its own determination. All policy matters must be in keeping with the policies of the school-wide community of four campuses.

Some of the committees, like the Admissions Committee, meet daily during critical periods (in the case of the Admissions Committee during the two months when the school is processing student applications) and may meet rarely for the most of the year.

The Fiscal Committee is empowered to review the use of collected revenue and to recommend allocations. The Faculty Selection Committee is authorized to recommend personnel decisions and adjustments in faculty teaching hours, as well as to recommend general policy issues concerning size of classes, standards of excellence, and criteria for selection. These are similar in many respects to the responsibilities of the Student Admissions Committee. The Curriculum Committee is authorized to recommend changes in program requirements, and additions and terminations of specific courses. The Educational Environment Committee has the somewhat more general responsibility to insure a phsyical and emotional climate that is both comfortable and conducive to the "educational and growth purposes of the school."

In addition, there are currently two functioning task forces, the Psychological Services Center and the Evaluation Task Force, which will be disbanded when their specific tasks are completed. Senators serve on an average of two of these subcommittees and task forces, and non-senators may, and frequently do, volunteer for appointment to them.

Partially because all of the key administrators at the school are ex officio members of the CEC, the line between policy-making and administration of policy is less important at CSPP than it is at many other schools.

Coordination between administration and policy-making is extremely tight. When the CEC decides that a certain faculty member should be increased from quarter-time to half-time, appropriate administrative actions follow immediately. There are none of the indirect administrative delays in implementation--through misinterpretations and deliberate modifications--that are common at many other schools with senates. More than any other single factor, perhaps, this rare correspondence between policy decisions and their implementation reinforces the senate's necessary conception of itself as the central internal governing body of the college.

In all of its many responsibilities, the CEC has performed with considerable vitality and competence. In the area of curriculum it has played an important role (according to respondents, largely because of highly motivated members of the curriculum subcommittee). It has extended the endangered humanities requirement and accepted a number of student-proposed courses.

The senate has also reformed regulations concerning adding and dropping classes and those concerning class attendance. It has reviewed and approved plans for creating an additional campus in Fresno (the San Francisco campus will assist the new campus during the first year), increased time for certain faculty, and reviewed at least two student complaints on specific teaching practices. It has drawn up and approved the operating budget and has approved a number of minor changes in the tiny physical plant (one floor in a large office building), such as the recent re-situation of the vending machines. As this brief review suggests,

the CEC is responsible for all levels of policy--from the most trivial to the most profound.

To more thoroughly understand the success of the senate at CSPP it is necessary to more closely examine the school itself. The San Francisco campus began operation, along with a sister campus in Los Angeles, in the fall of 1970 under the direction of Dr. Nicholas Cummings. The new schools were the product of the recommendations of a blue ribbon panel from the California State Psychological Association. The panel was instructed to investigate methods of reversing the trend in California universities to abandon or limit their clinical psychology programs.

The school's two additional campuses, scheduled to open in the fall of 1972 and 1973, are the discipline's first autonomous professional schools. Course work at CSPP is deliberately divided between seven major areas--field experience, theory, culture and society, independent and group scientific investigations, professional skills and issues, humanities and the arts, and personal growth and personal psychotherapy. There is a definite community welfare-oriented flavor to the curriculum which is reflected in both the original language requirement and the orientations of the faculty. The languages from which students were able to choose to fill the requirement were those of the largest ethnic subcultures in the city of San Francisco--Spanish, Italian, and Chinese. (The language requirement was dropped last year.) Nearly all of the faculty continue to divide their time between teaching at CSPP and their own professional work within the community. Instructors most commonly teach in the area in which they are carrying on a professional career.

The school operates on an eleven-month year, so that students can qualify for a professional degree every two years, from the para-professional Associate of Arts through the Master of Arts to the Ph.D. in a compressed program of six total years (18 trimesters). Easy exit from and re-entrance to the school are offered at each step, as well as at the B.A. level (third year). The final two years of the six-year program are devoted almost entirely to original research under faculty supervision. At every level, however, the students' work experiences are integrated with their academic studies in a wide range of settings; to a large extent, the entire city is the campus.

The campuses are deliberately limited in size through a stringent selection process, in the attempt to maintain a community spirit. Tuition is high (at the same level as the most prestigious private American universities), but ethnic minorities and the underprivileged are encouraged through recruitment and financial support where possible.

CSPP does not train only full-time students. Under its Division of Continuing Education the school provides psychological education to practicing professionals and to persons in allied fields. The CEC's Psychological Services Center task force has been concerned with expanding this program.

The close alliance between CSPP and the California State Psychological Association (14 members of the Association serve on the school's 34-member Board of Directors) has allowed the school to take advantage of the professional experiences and resources available through the Association.

In the school's first 18 months, over 250 Ph.D.'s and M.D.'s volunteered their services as faculty and administrators on the two campuses, a gift endowment equivalent to half a million dollars. The contributions of these volunteers were apparently a major reason why the Western Association's accrediting commission concluded in its first report that "It is amazing that CSPP could achieve the high academic standards it has in such a short time."

We have already mentioned the qualities of the institution which contribute to the success of the Campus Executive Committee. This more complete description of the school suggests other characteristics which might theoretically limit its effectiveness. It might seem logical, for example, that faculty, like those at CSPP, who are only segmentally involved with a school, might be less likely to give the amount or quality of time which this necessarily demanding form of governance requires. In addition, each of the six grade levels is represented by one of the six student senators. The diversity of interests of students at these different levels might theoretically threaten the spirit of cooperation between them. Finally, the values of the professional and apprentice psychologist do not all lead to accommodation and empathy in group situations. They also include values which discourage consensus when it is considered corrupt, demand individual satisfaction within the group, and encourage suspicion of apparent motives when they seem unauthentic.

Countervailing influences tend to neutralize each of these potential problem areas. In spite of their segmental involvement, faculty CEC

members are typically both energetic and committed to the goals of the school. Generally only those who are willing and eager to work in governance volunteer for election to the senate. The promise and excitement surrounding the development of the school certainly contribute to the dedication of faculty participants.

A more compelling interest in the field and in the school apparently bridges the diversity of interests of students at the various grade levels. Also, despite age and interest differences, students reportedly share many personal qualities. According to the accreditation commission's report, "The students . . . are an unusually mature, well-educated, goal-oriented group of people, obviously bright and interested in their work."

The other potential problem area, conflicts in values, would seem the most threatening to the senate. At least the confrontational values of the students and faculty are abundantly expressed in the issues of the school's newsletter. These value-orientations were also apparent in the controversies of early 1973 over a proposed tuition increase and a plan to develop what some considered an outmoded and regressive Ph.D. program in school psychology. During that time our administrator observer filed the following report: "It seemed to be a very, very anxiety-ridden month, and, in fact, the . . . meeting of the CEC which took place on February 16 . . . [can be described as having taken place in] a pool of very hot mud in which bubbles [of dissatisfaction] were rising to the surface and exploding. There was a great deal of anger directed at the school administration."

Concerning the tuition increase, one angry senator wrote, "I have to chuckle because the whole financial procedure was a caricature and an absurdity. They [the College Board of Directors] blatantly committed all the crimes known to wheeler-dealers. There were votes counted the night before, restrictions of time limits and information, the unfailing eloquence of our controller presenting one view only, the sycophantic gestures toward the seat of power, the expediency of righteous manipulation. . . . And now of course there is time to protest. . . . We were HAD from the opening volley. All we could do is scurry around the way students should. It is time to establish a student board." [It should be mentioned that the Board of Directors is made up of the same constituencies--students and faculty from CSPP.]

The proposed student board materialized late in the 1972 year and was active by that summer; nevertheless, the sense of outrage ran high until the increase was finally accepted as an absolute, if underhandedly engineered, necessity. Yet even during this storm period "there was a feeling that, while the local administration was trustworthy and did attempt to be democratic, the organization above the campus level was much more authoritarian," according to a faculty observer.

It appears that the senate's general immunity from confrontation and interest-group politics has been a function of the types of temperaments which have been attracted to participate in it. At least there were a large number of flexible, conciliatory "emotional leaders" who worked in the senate during the past year. But, more fundamentally, the high level of trust and respect in which the various constituencies and individual senators hold each other seems to be genuine. Even the

fiery author of the student board proposal made a point of emphasizing "the cohesiveness [in student-faculty-administration relations at CSPP which is] unknown in other schools." And none of the frequently challenging letters and articles in the newsletter last year critiqued the general role or values of any campus constituency group. This trust and respect is at least partially a function of the homogeneity of goals and values at CSPP. This climate may in fact be typical of professional schools in general, but even if this is the case, it is almost certainly enhanced by the optimism and relative youth of the profession promoted at CSPP.

This high level of mutual trust and respect did not carry over to the state-wide level for students in the 1972-73 year. [Since the student union was established, this has changed.] At first glance, this may seem at least slightly paradoxical since the state-wide administration presumably shares many of the goals and values of students on the individual campuses. While this is true enough, the state-wide administration has additional goals and values which sometimes conflict with those of the campuses and even with those which it has elsewhere stated for itself.

Last February, the students and faculty at the San Francisco campus opposed the school-wide administration's plan to develop a school psychology program on the grounds that it was too traditional for a school committed to the most advanced and innovative approaches in the field. The school-wide administration was accused of supporting the program because a quick response to state manpower needs might improve the status of the school and, not incidentally, help the school in its accreditation effort.

Whether these allegations were true or not, they at least suggest some of the conceivable "additional pressures" that could influence statewide administrative decisions.

Though there is a Board of Overseers which functions as a statewide advisory board, and represents various communities and kinds of expertise to the Board of Directors, for all practical purposes final authority over policy matters rests with the school's Board of Directors itself. Along with the 14 elected California State Psychology Association members, the Board of Directors is composed of six elected faculty, six elected students, and two elected members of the Board of Overseers. Campus deans and other administrators attend but do not vote. The President is a voting member. The Board of Directors too, is organized in committees which are responsible for various areas of system-wide interest. The policy of the Board is to send controversial recommendations to the campuses for input before they are finally accepted or rejected; but, as in the case of the tuition increase, the Board can choose to ignore an individual campus input, even when it is vigorously presented, in favor of school-wide consensus. In the end the school-wide majority rules.

The proposed CEC charter (not yet acted upon) states, "It is predictable that problems of jurisdiction will occur between the conflicting claims of the CEC and other policy-making groups." In spite of this philosophical concession, the CEC is jealous of its jurisdiction over campus policy and would apparently shed no tears over the disbandment of the Board of Directors. When conflicts arise, senators often argue

that the Board is too far removed from the needs and wishes of the campus constituencies to make competent decisions.

But the Board is not going to disband, and it seems clear that the mistrust which exists between the CEC and the Board and which might, at least conceivably, influence some future and more estranged Board to routinely ignore CEC recommendations, is perhaps only a minor threat to the campus senate. The Board is not isolated from campus constituencies; however, the California State Psychological Association is, and in the future that relationship could become a source of tension.

The CEC's only other apparent problem is the time that senate business demands of its participants. In one report, our faculty observer mourned, "I have devoted an extraordinary amount of time to work on the curriculum subcommittee, and I'm sure my other responsibilities have suffered for it." Other than slightly increasing the membership, there would seem to be no desirable way of alleviating these heavy time demands; broadly representative senates are not the easiest or most convenient forms of campus governance for non-administrators, especially when senates have broad policy-making responsibilities. At the same time, there is a possibility that increased membership would, in fact, handicap the senate. Manageable size is often more important than hypothetical workload reductions, since a dedicated core of people do most of the work in senates of any size.

Any final estimation of the CEC would have to conclude that so far it has been a very successful venture. Like the school itself, it is amazing that it could achieve so much in such a short time. Though the

senate's power has increased appreciably from year to year, the two senates preceding the 1972-73 CEC reportedly acted more as discussion groups than as policy-making bodies.

It is equally amazing that the senate has not encountered and foundered upon any of the numerous problems which are so common in the formative and developmental phases of so many campus senates. This relative immunity seems best explained by the uniqueness of the school itself. Unfortunately, it is precisely for this reason that the CEC must be seen essentially as a special case rather than as a shining general example of how well the senate concept can work. However, it may also be true that schools which are similar to CSPP in any one or some combination of characteristics may be able to more successfully implement and utilize shared governance than many other schools which are not. Professional degree granting schools, for example, may generally foster the high levels of mutual trust and respect that are so important to the senates. Students at these types of institutions may tend to see faculty and administrators as examples of what they are preparing to become, while faculty and administrators may tend to see students as the future of the profession which they theoretically revere. There will therefore be a greater commonality of goals and values. This hypothesis may be more convincingly applied to schools which, like CSPP, promote youthful and future-oriented professions. However, it may have some limited application for other professional schools and in other areas as well--for example, in the case of sectarian schools, many of which have a high level of cohesion.

CHAPTER 7
Conclusions

One of the major methodological difficulties in the study has been the consistent divergence between data gathered from the questionnaire (filled out almost entirely by presidents, other administrators, and chairmen of the senates, who are often administrators) and the participant observer data (which was the basis for the case studies), which takes into account the broader view of students and faculty as well as administrative perspectives. Indeed, one of our major findings might well be this discrepancey, in that it leads to the conclusion that administrators by and large are more euphoric about the performance and potential of campus senates than those who are more directly involved in these bodies on a daily and weekly basis.

One is also led to believe that the meaning of "participation" for central administration is quite different than "participation" as interpreted by students and faculty members, who characteristically want to be near the center of the decision-making process. Thus, the administrative perspective on participation emphasizes not shared decision-making but rather the possibility of access to the decision-making process in

the form of senate recommendations. For many students and faculty, this is a big shock when they come to realize that they are not actually going to decide things.

If there is a primary strategic error that we have uncovered in our work, it is the tendency of administration, often with the best of motives, to lead a newly formed campus senate down a garden path with great expectations of mutually fulfilling endeavors, until the senate first decides something. At that point, there is a tendency for the administration to pull in the reins very quickly and to indicate that the senate is only an advice-giving body which should not get into the realm of political realities. This procedure is very disruptive to student and faculty morale and contributes, to some extent, to the participant observer data indicating student and faculty discontent with the procedures and activities of the senates.

Indeed, we found some examples of student and faculty coalitions in the participant observer data, primarily because of the student-faculty desire to increase the leverage and decision-making power of the senate when that issue was not defined early in the game. It is strongly suggested that when a campus senate is initiated, the members of the senate get trained in certain specifics of campus operation, such as the budgetary procedures, and, in addition, that the areas of responsibility for the senate and the expectations of involvement be clearly negotiated. As we indicated earlier, the data from the questionnaire reveals that the campus senates are overhwelmingly advisory and relatively less often legislative and judicial in terms of how they function on specific issues.

While it is clear that the importance of the advisory role will vary from institution to institution by a number of factors--status of the senate, types of leaders, circumstances, among others--there is no reason why it cannot be an important function. At the very least, the senate will expand the flow of information and communication out of which all decisions are fashioned. Nevertheless, the level of importance attached by the president to the advice of the senate in each of various areas of concern should be specified. Faculty and students should recognize the potential of the advisory function, especially over issues agreed upon as falling within the senate's areas of greatest influence, but they should have no illusions that their advice will be routinely followed even in those areas.

In some cases, in certain institutions, the advisory role may be, in fact, a role of no political importance whatsoever. The "advisory capacity only" designation apparently solves the administrative problem with the senates at many institutions and allows the administration to listen to the senate primarily when its advice fits in with what the administrators had already decided.

Clearly, what is called for in the approach of participants in the many advisory-only senates is a combination of insistence on the delineation of areas of influence, optimism about the potential of the advice-giving role, cultivation of the political sophistication necessary to exploit that role to its full potential, and surrender of any illusions about the automatic correspondence of advice and authority.

Although based on little data, we also had the general feeling that relationships between boards of control and campus-wide senates are quite confused and often threatening to both sides. Board members often may see the campus senate as a group attempting to wrest power and authority away from their president. The campus senate, on the other hand, may see the board as a distant unthinking group of businessmen who get together only two or three times a year and try to solve all the institution's problems on the basis of that limited exposure. There is a problem in communication of the first order here, and it might be very helpful if institutions generally adopted the policy of having a board member sit in on campus senate meetings. It might also be helpful to have a campus senate member sit in on board meetings. The relations between boards of control and campus senates are potentially conflicting, in that both are representative to some extent and both may feel they are the primary policy-making body for the institution. In thinking of the formation of a campus senate, some way needs to be developed to deal with this question before the tension breaks. Part of the problem has to do with the lack of a clear-cut definition of the word "policy." Once again, a clear negotiation of jurisdictional areas seems to be the most useful way to help resolve some of these problems before they become too serious.

One major theme that emerges from the research is the notion that the more clarified the mission of an institution, the better the possibility for success of a unicameral body such as the campus senate. Size

is a somewhat confounding factor here, in that as institutions get larger they often get more complex and more diverse. This often necessitates a larger campus senate, and one might argue that if an institution has over 20,000 students and has a campus senate of over 50, those 50 people will have a very difficult time representing the needs and interests of the 20,000. If the institution has coalesced around some common purpose, it tends to attract a narrow range of students; also programs become more consistent and inter-related, so that the institution has a greater level of coordination. Most of our examples of successful senates, seen from everybody's perspective, have to do with a commonality of purpose, a limit in scope as far as student diversity is concerned, and consistent programs that are clearly related to the purpose of the institution.

Although we can do no more than speculate at this time, it may be that there is a point of diversity of numbers and backgrounds and interests in student and faculty bodies beyond which the participatory style does not work. Many of our views here are closely related to those of Robert Pace in his Carnegie Commission report Education and Evangelism (1972). The only potentially confounding aspect of our study in this regard is the apparent success of large numbers of senates in the community college area. Part of the interpretation here may well be that, compared to other institutional types, community colleges are more coherent in terms of student body and objectives. A community college which is limited to vocational-technical programs and to four-year college transfer work may have more cohesiveness than a state

college with a teacher-education background now offering masters' degrees in a number of subject areas and expanding its horizons toward what is euphemistically called "greatness." Our feeling early in the research was that a commuter institution such as a community college would have great difficulty in making a senate go. Our data indicates otherwise, as long as there is some feeling that the senate is performing a useful function and that the institution has enough coherence to make the senate's role in the institution clear.

Large senates, particularly those which have more than 50 participants, seem to have many more problems than one would expect by chance. These bodies have large numbers of problems, both procedural and jurisdictional, and behind much of this may be the difficulty of representation. Although one might assume an expectation on the part of some members of large senates that they must vote as the bloc that elected them would vote, our case study and questionnaire data indicates very, very few examples of consistent bloc voting. The normal pattern is more likely to be a student-faculty coalition along leftist lines, and another coalition on more conservative lines. But large senates need specific help in getting their agendas for the year clarified. When a senate of large size (over 50 members) meets only once every several months, the possibility of its being anything other than a sounding-board is small.

If large senates wish to do useful work, it may well be that some sort of division into internal task forces might be the best way to do so. The job of a task force would be to investigate one specific

problem and then to go out of business as soon as the task force had reported back to the full senate. As long as one of the major complaints about senates is the amount of time they take in getting things done, it behooves a large senate particularly to develop relatively efficient and speedy processes of information-gathering and deliberation.

One great difficulty in large senates is the problem of special interest groups, particularly members of various minorities, and various sectors of the faculty that feel they are not adequately represented. (If they are chosen on a proportional basis, faculty members in small divisions and departments may have virtually no representation at all, a condition which could be disconcerting if the perception of the faculty is that the senate is, or will become, a strong political force.)

Another point of interest to us was whether or not campus senates had a "life history" that could be traced with some consistency across institutions. In that we had in our sample a large number of campus senates that had been in existence for quite a few years, as well as some newly formed ones, we were hoping to get more information on this point. The data is not clear on the issue, but from some of the participant observer material it would appear that the creation of the campus senate at its inception is less significant than the re-creation of the senate every year. To some extent, campus senates arise phoenix-like out of the ashes of previous years' efforts, and every senate, no matter how consistent or structured in previous years, has to take its future one year at a time and is highly dependent on the kinds of individuals that make up that body in any given year. "Great expectations" in the formative years can be a major problem.

There may be certain kinds of problems that occur on a seasonal basis. For example, protests over faculty dismissals tend to come in February and March, which is about a month after those decisions have been leaked to the campus. The fall issues of the senate are often organizational and distributional in nature (how to deal with the existing student government and committee structures, and how to proportion the student activities fees, are two examples). Another possibility from our case studies is that the more breaks the institution has in its calendar, the more difficulty the senate will have in operating, as every break in a quarter system represents a potential loss of some senate members, giving the quarter system institutions at least three "start ups" per year, compared to only two for the semester institution.

All of the senates have been added burden of faculty members who are not full-time representatives. They have to split their time, for example, between teaching, research, faculty committees, and the senate. Consequently, they often do not have the time to do their senate jobs well at all. This pressure may be reflected by the absentee rates of the senates which, (if our case study data is any indication) are often apparently very high.

Because the senates' goals and loyalties may often seem abstract to their members, and its actions so slow and so frequently frustrating, members with many other compelling responsibilities may often fail to see any vital connection between themselves and the senates. At least this may be true for some senates or certain kinds of members. To improve participation and to combat these kinds of problems, faculty members

should be awarded teaching credit for participation in the senates, and students should receive course credit.

Putting all of these dimensions together, it might be said that the institution which will have the most difficulty in starting a new campus senate is a large (over 20,000 students), public university on a quarter calendar located in a large city with a high degree of diversity of programs and institutional objectives. The institutions least likely to have difficulty with a campus senate will be those that are relatively small, relatively cohesive in purpose, and with a set of students who come to that institution with a finite set of objectives and from a relatively non-diverse set of backgrounds.

It is clear from our study that there is some kind of limit to the amount of human diversity one can have in a group of people and still call it a community in any meaningful way. This does not necessarily spell the death of cultural pluralism, but it means that in terms of working organizations, there has to be some homogeneity of purpose to make participatory organizations work. The Tower of Babel from which people shout at each other in unknown tongues is one model for the dangers which campus senates face. With common purpose comes the need for a common language, and the desire to occasionally give in on small personal points so that the institution may continue. A super-ordinate goal seems to be quite important to the functioning of an agency such as a broadly based senate.

It is too early for us to make any generalization about the impact of collective bargaining on campus senates. Many of our respondents to the questionnaire felt that the existence of a collective bargaining unit on the campus would immediately do in the campus senate, and, indeed, we did find some data indicating that this could happen. However, we also found data indicating that the faculty senate had suffered at least as serious a setback by the existence of a collective bargaining unit as did the campus-wide senate. We would hypothesize that the primary nature of the bargaining process, which is adversary, is not entirely compatible with a campus senate, which is at its core communitarian and, hopefully, collaborative. Several of the participant observers from our case study institutions indicated that increased factionalism was one difficulty with maintaining a campus senate, and certainly factionalism is one part of the collective bargaining process. However, other respondents had the feeling that after a period of adjustment, the collective bargaining movement could insure the continued existence of a campus-wide senate by clarifying procedures and responsibilities in the form of what appears in the contract. Indeed, several collective bargaining negotiations have included as a part of the bargaining process the right to establish a broadly based campus legislative unit, such as a campus senate or council, with the inclusion of student, administrative, and faculty members as one of the bargaining points. If this becomes a trend, it may be that other collective negotiations will also include some kind of participatory governing structure. At the moment no one

knows for sure. If collective bargaining at public institutions moves increasingly to statewide bargaining with few local options (and many think this will be the case), the possibilities for individual campus senates will decrease, as most of the decisions that affect faculty most immediately will be made at the state level, giving less power to any campus decision-making body which tries to deal with faculty affairs, among others.

This does not mean that the senates must necessarily prepare themselves for imminent disbandment, or even that they must necessarily play a clearly subordinate and diminishing role. The issues which the senates consider to be central to their missions are typically short-run and rather humble in comparison to the areas of concern of these other bodies, which are grander and more long-range.

It is true that these jurisdictions overlap; and the trends discussed above suggest there may be additional areas of overlapping in the future. Issues will continue to arise which force the collision of the long-range with the short-run.

This jurisdictional question is a very difficult one, but it seems that the boundaries of areas of influence and responsibility could be effectively drawn and agreed upon with the understanding that they may be occasionally subject to change and that input should be sought on a number of issues in each jurisdictional realm from all segments of the campus--from the student and staff level to the trustee level.

Campus senates can, and often should, do more than increase communication across groups, improve morale, and bring some sense of campus-

wide interest in issues. They can and should make certain decisions, or at least have a major influence in their determination. But in addition, they can operate effectively on the margins of power and should, since influence can be attained at the margins and a productive leadership role can come through influence as well as power.

Whether senates play this advisory role productively will largely depend on the effectiveness of their re-creation each year; that is, on the kinds of individuals and issues that make up the body in any given year. But this success will also depend on the steps that are taken to regulate and smooth out the senate process, to train and encourage its members, and to define its jurisdiction. The broadly representative senate form, one of the last unicameral settings to be found in American government, is not necessarily pre-ordained for extinction. But it points itself in that direction when in spite of its promise (and partly in the light of that promise), it fails to grow in power and sophistication.

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